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# JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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AMERICAN ASSOCIATION  
OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

MARCH 1952 • VOL. XXII • No. 7

# JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES



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Volume XXII

March, 1952

Number 7

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CHARLES S. MORRIS . . . . .	367
WHAT IS WRONG WITH THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS? . . . . .	J. R. F. Kent 369
FROM THE CLASSROOM, THROUGH THE LIBRARY, INTO THE COMMUNITY: A SEMINAR IN MINORITY PROBLEMS . . . . .	William J. Page and Joseph Yenish 375
JUNIOR COLLEGE EDUCATION IN THAILAND . .	Walter Crosby Eells 380
TOWARD IMPROVED PROGRAMS OF STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES . . . . .	J. Anthony Humphreys 382
THE STATUS AND TRENDS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN NEGRO JUNIOR COLLEGES . . . . .	Thomas A. Hart 393
DEAN'S RECORDS AND PERSONNEL CARDS . . .	Cornelia Carter 396
A MILESTONE A MILE HIGH . . . . .	Rodney Townley 402
SOME ASPECTS OF THE STATUS OF JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES . . . . .	406
PIONEERING A PRACTICAL NURSING PROGRAM . . . . .	L. J. Elias 411
NOTES ON THE AUTHORS . . . . .	Marion Gaither Kennedy 418
RECENT WRITINGS	
JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS . . . . .	Leon Brownlee 419
SELECTED REFERENCE . . . . .	H. F. Bright 424

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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: \$3.50 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions, to faculty of institutions which are members of the American Association of Junior Colleges: \$2.00 a year. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to James W. Reynolds, College of Education, The University of Texas, P.O. Box 2118, Austin 12, Texas. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Entered as second-class matter November 22, 1938, at the Post Office at Washington, D.C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Austin, Texas, August 20, 1949.

[Printed in U. S. A.]



# JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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## Charles S. Morris\*

WHEN the historian comes to appraise the relative values of the contributions to junior college education in California of the men most entitled to recognition, the name of Charles S. Morris will stand near the head of the list. His name will rank side by side with those of Dean Alexis F. Lange and State Superintendent Will C. Wood, who were, respectively, the educational philosopher and the educational statesman of the movement in California in the early period.

Charles S. Morris, aged sixty-four years at the time of his death, was born into a family in which the father was a high school teacher and principal. Of imposing appearance, six feet four inches in height, proportionately well-developed (thereby attaining the title "Jumbo" by which he was familiarly known), Morris gained fame as a star track athlete at Stanford University from which he was graduated in 1908. He participated as a hurdler on the U.S. Olympic team of 1912 and, for a number of years thereafter, aided in the coaching of high school and college athletic teams.

His first experience in junior college administration came at Modesto, California, when he was

appointed Dean of the Junior College at that city in the upper San Joaquin valley region. In 1931, he assumed the duties of Dean of San Mateo Junior College located on the "peninsula" a few miles south of San Francisco, ultimately being named President of the College and Superintendent of the Junior College district.

Regarded ever as their friend and co-worker by students and faculty alike, active in numerous civic enterprises and activities, Mr. Morris held the affectionate esteem of his fellow-citizens. He was a firm believer in the doctrine that junior college instructors should take a lively interest in community affairs. Writing in the pioneer volume edited by the late Dr. William M. Proctor in 1927 entitled, *The Junior College*, Mr. Morris stated his views in this manner.

"Within any well-chosen faculty there should be a sufficient number qualified by nature and training to assume positions of leadership in the outstanding interests and

\*Charles S. Morris, Vice-President of the American Association of Junior Colleges, died February 24, 1952.

Archie J. Cloud, formerly President of San Francisco City College and a long-time personal friend of Mr. Morris, prepared at our request the editorial which expresses so well the feelings of all of Mr. Morris' friends.

activities of the community . . . the guiding principle . . . a fundamental belief in the vitality and permanency of democracy and of its institutions . . . the junior college . . . one of the cornerstones in the development of the personnel of that democracy."

The colleagues of Mr. Morris in the California Junior College Association responded early to his qualities of leadership. After serving a term as President of the Association, he was drafted to be Chairman of its Legislative Committee, and for more than two decades undertook the arduous tasks assigned to that committee. His devotion was unexcelled; his judgment sound. In that capacity, he promoted and carried to successful completion, a series of legislative measures that have brought exceptional benefits to the public junior college of the state in advancement of their objectives of community service. Likewise, he aided largely in the development of the legislative program of the California Teachers Association, for his interests extended beyond the junior college into the whole educational area. His wise counsels have been eagerly sought for many years past by leaders in the national junior college movement.

Such, in brief review, may be said to have been the main facts connected with the educational career of Charles S. Morris.

Beyond that, what can be said of him as a man? What were some

of his guiding principles throughout life?

While a student at Stanford University, Mr. Morris came under the benignant influence of an extraordinary humanitarian in the person of David Starr Jordan, then President of the University. "I have attempted to put Dr. Jordan's philosophy into action in my own life," Mr. Morris once declared.

Certain elements of that philosophy in action can perhaps be diagnosed under the following headings:

*Integrity.* He was noted for honesty of purpose, loyalty to convictions, and fair and square dealing, qualities that earned for him the unbounded admiration and esteem of all who knew him.

*Sincerity.* He convinced himself, by careful and thorough study, of the soundness of his ideas before he laid them before others. He did not allow himself to be moved by personal considerations or local advantage. He kept faith with himself in upholding the right as he saw the right.

*Courage.* He could face opponents without embittering them, could present his cause without fear or favor, could win with honor or lose without dishonor. He was a champion.

The pattern of his life has been fulfilled. His work and deeds will long endure.

A great oak has fallen in the forest. A deep hollow is left on the wooded hillside.

# What Is Wrong With the Teaching of Mathematics?

J. R. F. KENT

AT A recent conference attended by the writer, a prominent American educator stated from the platform that in his opinion in American colleges today "the worst-taught subjects are mathematics and economics." Mathematics being the present writer's field, it is the purpose of this article to consider what justification there might be for the first half of this criticism; the remainder of it will be left to the mercies of the economists.

Before parting the ways, however, it might be observed that in the statement quoted there is an interesting implication. Most present day college instructors, of whatever subject, have in their preparation for the profession been subjected to more or less uniform pedagogical requirements; that is to say, the number and content of pedagogical courses undergone, if any, depended little or not at all upon the particular subject the prospective teacher had in view. Consequently, any differences observed later in teaching competence must be due either to fundamental differences in teaching ability or to special difficulties or conditions in the various subjects taught.

Surely the two subjects of mathematics and economics do not attract *as a class* those individuals

who are inclined to be, pedagogically speaking, the poorest teachers! Nor can it be said that either of these two subjects is fundamentally any more difficult to teach than are certain others in the curriculum. It has sometimes been claimed for mathematics that it is more demanding than other subjects upon the intellectual ability of students, but this claim might well be disputed. Consequently, if the criticism is justified, it would seem to be mainly because of *the attitude the teacher takes toward his subject*.

What attitude do the majority of mathematics teachers take to their subject? For one thing, how much do they know about their subject—not just about its long and venerable history, but about its nature? Are they curious about the nature of their subject? And no matter how much they may already know about it, are they interested in learning more? Whatever criticism might be levelled at teachers of economics, one would hesitate to say that they do not read their daily papers and keep up with current or recent developments. Do mathematics teachers do this? Are they aware that in recent years their subject has been developing at a faster and faster pace, in fact, that in the past two

generations alone so much has been learned about the true nature of algebra, geometry, and all the fundamental concepts of mathematics that many of the earlier developments now appear like so much groping in the dark? To terminate study of the history of mathematical ideas with the nineteenth century, as many teachers do, is about as profitable as hearing a joke with its "punch line" missing.

A little knowledge of the true nature of his subject is of inestimable value to even the most elementary teacher, in any field. It is not intellectually beyond him, or if so, he should not be teaching the subject at all. Such knowledge gives a teacher not only the confidence required of a good salesman but also an ability to command respect from his students which can be obtained in no other way. In the case of mathematics, this true nature should be reasonably clear from even a brief study of the recent basic developments in the subject. Far from being a set of related or unrelated *facts* about the physical world or a prop for the sciences to lean upon, as the layman is apt to suppose from the manner in which it is generally taught, mathematics is actually a form of logical thought. The authority which it commands is by no means the authority of either science or the physical world, nor is it the authority of the mathematical "expert" or of the teacher who imparts it, but it is simply the

authority of logic and organized common sense. But how many students have been brought up to realize this? Except perhaps for "motivation" considerations, such a realization on the part of the students should in actual practice make mathematics one of the easiest, not one of the hardest, subjects to teach. The necessary motivation can generally be furnished by interesting applications or problems of not too difficult a type. If students could be convinced that such applications as are made of mathematics in the classroom are not *the reason for* the mathematics but are for motivation purposes only—in order to get them to think—their whole attitude towards the "practical value" of such hardy perennials as "How-old-is-Ann?" and the like would be immeasurably improved.

In putting his subject across, the mathematics teacher should never lose sight of his fundamental purpose, namely, to instill in his students a genuine love of logical and analytical thinking, either for its own sake or for its possible application to really worthwhile problems. He must never give his students the impression that either he or any other person, living or dead, is the authority on what is good or bad mathematics. Such authority, he must insist, is the authority of logic and common sense, of which they, the students themselves, can be custodians as well as he. He is merely the "coach," whose function it is to



explain the rules of the game and to develop the students' prowess and interest in it. He must give every evidence not only that he is intelligent and mathematically competent but also that he is in reality a student of mathematics himself, with numerous unsolved problems before him, and, in fact, that he is really interested more in the unsolved problems than in the solved ones.

There are, of course, those teachers who go to extremes in this direction, digressing too frequently in their teaching, largely for egotistical reasons, to the detriment of their own reputation for competence and of the success of the job in hand. The ideal mathematics teacher is one who gets the immediate job done but who is willing and competent to discuss larger issues, or possibly to explore deeper topics so long as the class remains with him. Such a teacher is capable of developing in his students not only mathematical knowledge and skill in the ordinary sense, but also, if only by his own example, "mathematical maturity"—the ability to do one's own thinking in the subject.

The latter characteristic is fundamental to all sound mathematical study and has, in the writer's opinion, considerable "transfer value"; yet it is sorely lacking in many high school and junior college graduates. It is essential preparation for those who embark upon further mathematical study in a university. The curriculum of high

school or junior college should be designed in such a way as to teach gradually the various mathematical skills, at the same time making greater and greater demands upon the student, as he proceeds, to do his own mathematical thinking. In this way, the desired maturity can be developed. It cannot be developed unless the instructor is willing to develop it.

It was stated above that even the most elementary mathematics teacher can profit by a knowledge of the logical nature of his subject. Experience with the average college freshman indicates that much damage has often been done in this connection in the high schools. In the minds of most high school graduates, the distinction between mathematics itself and its possible application to problems and "life situations" is not at all clear. So it is surely most appropriate for the junior colleges, colleges, and universities to attempt to repair this damage as soon as possible. In most cases it is not too late. In the first course in algebra, it should be impressed upon the student that the subject is simply a form of logic or, as he might prefer to call it, common sense. Taking the basic elements from the familiar number system used in arithmetic and applying to them the two fundamental operations of addition and multiplication (with their inverses), subject to five basic postulates,  $a + b = b + a$ ,  $ab = ba$ , etc., it can be demonstrated how to build up, by the simple proc-



esses of logic, the whole of ordinary algebra—except of course for its applications, which are merely a translation problem. Likewise, in whatever courses are offered in trigonometry, analytic geometry, or calculus, it should be made clear that these subjects, too, are logic, based up on the logic of ordinary algebra and Euclidean geometry, that is, geometry with points and lines as elements and subject to the Euclidean postulates, noting particularly the famous postulate about parallel lines. The fact that the basic elements of both algebra and geometry are undefined and the basic postulates unproved need be no source of embarrassment to the teacher any more than the arbitrary nature of the rules of baseball is embarrassing to the baseball coach. Mathematics might be described as simply a mental game which happens to have considerably wider application than most other mental games or the games of athletics.

This recognition that the rules of the game are arbitrary and unproved should, moreover, be of immense value to the teacher who hopes to interest his better students in the subject of mathematics for its own sake. Many times in recent years the statement has been made that the better students are being either neglected or bored. The moment the good student hears that such fundamental loopholes exist in the mathematics which he is studying, he will begin to wonder about other possibilities. In

fact, he might well jump to the correct conclusion that there exist algebras and geometries different from the ones which he is studying. This would, he might reason, be no less to be expected than, since the rules of the game of baseball are arbitrary, there could be many other possible games using similar equipment but with changes in the rules. The good teacher should then be fully prepared to admit the existence of these other algebras and geometries and to discuss the matter for a reasonable length of time, referring the student to the library if he is still curious about the details.

To almost every higher algebra student the writer has had in the university, it has come as a distinct shock to find that there are algebras in which it is just not true that  $ab = ba$ , or that  $a + b = b + a$ , or even perhaps that  $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$ . As a matter of fact, such coincidences are not really to be logically *expected* in mathematics. In the case of the algebra of ordinary numbers, such coincidences are merely postulates (assumptions), based upon considerable experience, but such so-called "laws" cannot be proved. Likewise, the fact that the Euclidean postulate of parallels can readily be denied, leading immediately to the equally valid non-Euclidean geometries (in which, for example, the sum of the three interior angles of any triangle is *not* equal to two right angles) seems to baffle even many educated

people. Such a widespread lack of understanding of what a mathematical assumption (postulate) is must surely be due to wrong methods of teaching, and if the high schools are not prepared to rectify this error, then it would appear to be a responsibility of the colleges.

The matter has conceivably an even wider implication, or "transfer value," particularly for those students in college who upon graduation are not intending to pursue their studies any further. Along with a clarification of what a mathematical postulate is should go a much clearer conception of what *any* postulate is, be it political, economic, legal, social, religious, or whatever. Such a clear conception is fundamental to American education. Tolerance, freedom from prejudice, and many allied topics are taught in school sometimes with little success. But such concepts are largely a matter of respect for the validity of postulates differing from one's own. In every case these postulates are unproved in the mathematical sense (although they may not be untested), and from each possible set of postulates perfectly logical consequences may result. The realization that two or more kinds of geometry or of algebra—completely logical processes—can be equally valid or "correct" and live together side by side though disagreeing in their basic assumptions is an impressive one. The fact that a tremendous amount has been accomplished in terrestrial science

and engineering by the use of a calculus based upon Euclidean geometry does not in any way prevent the researcher in relativity from employing a non-Euclidean geometry not only to explain but also to predict phenomena in a somewhat different realm. Neither the Euclidean nor any of the non-Euclidean geometries can be said to be "the true geometry." As logical systems, all of them are equally valid; in fact, it is comparatively easy to prove that any inconsistency discovered within any one of them would immediately imply a corresponding inconsistency in each of the others. Educated persons should have some acquaintance with such fundamental notions as these, and they are not too difficult to incorporate early in the mathematics curriculum, provided the instructor cares enough about his subject to do so.

To summarize, the good teacher is not merely one who can drill his students well or who can show them how to work every problem in the textbook, nor is he one who makes the work more painless by using rule-of-thumb methods designed deliberately to avoid the necessity of the student's thinking. He must first of all be well trained in, and enthusiastic about, the living subject of mathematics, and he must be constantly aware of his main responsibility, which is to develop the students' logical thinking ability. He should be able to give suggestions, if not complete answers, to the most searching questions

of the better students, and he must put across both to them and to the weaker ones the basic fact that mathematics, far from being merely a succession of carefully mem-

orized routines for certain specific purposes, is truly a logical thought process—in fact that in its very logic lie its importance and its strength.

# *From the Classroom, Through the Library, Into the Community:*

## *A Seminar in Minority Problems*

WILLIAM J. PAGE AND JOSEPH YENISH

"THE COMMUNITY College proposes something for which precedents are not numerous," wrote provost Millard E. Gladfelter of Temple University.<sup>1</sup> "One who is comfortable only in following well-worn trails would not be a happy participant." In the two years of the existence of the Community College one of these "some-things" has crystallized into a search for opportunities for the student to put the "pure information" which he receives to some practical use. Reported in this article is an instance in which such an opportunity arose in a class in Community Resources<sup>2</sup> and the manner in which it was exploited.

Unquestionably the ethnical composition of the group, a virtual melting pot in miniature, contributed to the intensity of the interest. There were in this group twenty-seven young men and women, white and Negro, Jews, Protestants, and Roman Catholics. The sting of insecurity because of their minority status had already been felt by a number of them in one place or another.

The instructor made a remark about the circular thinking which prevails on the subject of minority groups. It was a casual and par-enthetical remark. The class re-

action was unexpected. One student, repeating with gusto the stereotype accusations which are frequently made against Jews, demanded to know how, if they were completely innocent, they acquired so widespread a reputation for these traits. "Was everybody crazy?" Another student retorted with a similar citation and a similar query about Catholics. It was apparent that there was some fire behind this smoke.

Once the discussion burst, it was plainly desirable to let it go on. It was disturbing to listen to it because it showed confusions and baselessness. There were undertones of groping, of disquiet, and of idealism. Insofar as there appeared rudimentary formulations of the subject's divisions, of fundamental questions to be answered, they began to crystallize (with the instructor's participation) into the following:

1. What are the bases of prejudice toward minority groups: psychological, sociological, economic? If prejudice is purposely stirred up, who

<sup>1</sup>Millard E. Gladfelter, "Community College Case History," *School and Society*, LXXI (June 10, 1950), pp. 353-356.

<sup>2</sup>A course whose aim is familiarity with and appreciation of the cultural, educational, social, religious, and recreational resources in city areas, with special reference to Philadelphia. It is a modified program in sociology.

does the stirring, and what are the techniques employed?

2. What are the grievances of specific groups: of Jews, of Negroes, of Catholics? What are the grievances of minority groups in other communities?
3. Are there any organizations in the community which work for the advancement of specific groups? If so, in what areas do they operate, what are their techniques, and how effective are they? Are there any organizations in the community which work for the general lessening of tension and for the promotion of understanding?

The instructor had little trouble selling the class the idea of a seminar in "Minority Problems," to continue perhaps for three weeks. The slogans became "Let's get the facts!" and "Let's see how this thing really works!" The excavation of that segment of the facts (or fiction parading as fact) which is contained in print would begin at once. For the next session and for as many subsequent sessions as seemed necessary, it was decided that the class would assemble in the library.

At Temple University's Community College it has become a habit with many instructors and the policy of more than one department to induce students to use the library as a laboratory of learning. The librarian is continuously relied upon for bibliographic consultation. Here a spontaneously-born project offered an ideal opportunity for collaboration between instructor and librarian, for a merger of classroom and library functions. The instructor acquainted the librarian with what

had happened in the classroom, and together they set out to prepare themselves for the library sessions that were to come and to control constructively the learning environment. They agreed that the students would be helped to channel whatever information was encountered into the three divisions that were formulated in the classroom. The instructor (turned librarian) and the librarian (turned instructor) personally gathered together an impressive number of pertinent books and pamphlets as well as a list of references to periodicals and newspapers. For the purpose of raising the prestige of the experiment in the eyes of the students themselves, it was arranged that when they converged on the library they would find several tables set aside for them marked "Reserved for the Seminar in Minority Problems." The books and pamphlets were placed on special shelves and similarly labeled.

The first session was in fact a lecture-demonstration of library usage. The shelves set aside for the seminar contained a working nucleus of information; much more could be located through the card catalog and the various printed indexes. Criteria by which to evaluate sources were explored. Note-taking shortcuts were demonstrated.

At this initial session, too, the group divided itself into three committees, each under the elected chairman. Expediency quickly dictated that these committees be



referred to by number, corresponding to the divisions which had been agreed upon. It was understood that each committee would file a report of its findings, to be presented in one of two ways: the composite work of the committee as a whole; or individually-signed contributions assembled under one cover with an introduction by the chairman pointing out their common purposes and their common elements.

At the second session, again assembled in the library, the research began. About one hundred books and pamphlets had been gathered by the supervisors and roughly divided into groups. For the moment, it was decided that each student would scan as much of the material as he could, looking more intensively at what was unmistakably relevant and passing over the rest. An item that appeared of special interest to a neighboring committee could, for the sake of economy of effort, be immediately called to the attention of its chairman. The overriding aim of this browsing session was for each person to determine into what natural subdivisions his committee topic fell so that he would be better able to undertake specialization in one of these sub-topics.

The subsequent sessions of the class alternated between the library, where the expansion of the factual framework continued, and the classroom, where, in panel discussions, blackboard outlining, and intra-committee conversations the

material was analyzed. At an early classroom session the trunk topics were divided and distributed to subcommittees of one or two persons. It was not too long before there asserted itself the force which at Community College is so potent: the desire to go out into the "field" and learn at first hand how this problem of minority relations worked in practice. At the Community College, trips to industrial establishments, banks, little theatres, exhibitions, and many of the other varied outposts of the community's organized activities have become the accepted laboratory complement of the sociology and business courses. It was therefore natural that the students who were investigating the grievances of minority groups should feel urged to interview spokesmen of these groups: publishers of Negro and Jewish newspapers, politicians electioneering for office, managers of mixed housing projects, etc. For the members of the committee who were investigating the activities of goodwill organizations, their field work was cut out for them. They had studied the annual reports, the surveys, and publicity material circulated by the Fellowship Commission (Philadelphia's federation of intercultural organizations), the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the Anti-Defamation League, the Catholic Interracial Council, and others. Now they would go out and see the headquarters of these organizations, in-

interview their leaders, and evaluate their work from as close a range as possible. This they did, and more. They managed to persuade some of the leaders to come to the school and address the entire class and their guests. That they managed to make their work something of a subject of campus conversation is shown by the way the school newspaper caught it up. Its account began as follows:

*Seminar in Minority Problems  
Moves from Classroom to Library;  
Social Science Experiment*

Prejudice and discrimination—the “bad neighbor policy”—are not simple surface phenomena. They are undoubtedly rooted in ignorance, inertia, and vested interest propaganda. But they are aided by illusive economic, psychological and sociological forces.

That is why Mr. William Page and his class in Social Sciences have decided that the problem is too complex to be tackled adequately by the lecture and textbook method alone.

And that is why the entire group, in “Committee of the Whole,” invaded the library to find out what scientific, properly-documented information is available on the subject in books, pamphlets, periodicals and newspapers.

After recapitulating the seminar’s techniques, the article concluded:

The experiment will not be all book learning. The class will seek to establish contact with such organizations as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the Fellowship Commission, the Anti-Defamation League, etc. It will seek to determine which, if any, of these groups deserve the support of conscientious citizens. It is anticipated that the class will file three committee reports.

The three reports have been

filed, they are the tangible, the expected, the conventional residue of the roving seminar. It is also a fact that two students have become active, each in a different organization to which they were introduced. The *intangible* results, particularly the modifications of attitude which each student achieved for himself, are much more elusive. Not all worked earnestly. The habitual loafers attempted to loaf here as well. The two students whose vociferousness was so important a catalyst in starting off this cooperative study, turned out to be among the more lethargic participants. But there came into play the force of “public opinion” when the serious workers showed a distinct reluctance to share credit with their lazier brethren. On the whole, interest was keen. In their discussions the students spoke with genuine deference and respect about ethnic groups other than their own. There was a progressively-marked increase in social sensitiveness and awareness of the interrelation of groups and social welfare. If it should eventually turn out that the seminar lighted up a spark in even a single one of its participants sufficient to inspire him to a career of social amelioration, that would be a most happy result. It seems reasonable that three weeks of thinking, of searching, of roaming, might have inseminated in some of the participating minds the germ of a constructive attitude. At least, should they find themselves in the

maelstrom of a Cicero, Illinois (site of an incident which received damaging banner headlines as far as Singapore) or a Sioux City, Iowa,<sup>3</sup> this learning experience might have implanted in them the saving measure of immunization against being stampeded into bandwagon rashness.

The most important implication of this experiment, however—the one in which the authors see their justification for a public report—is its suggestibility as a settled technique for teaching community sociology to college lower-classmen. Perhaps in the final analysis, what is proposed is a further application of the wise and tried principle that the greater the number of faculties which are enlisted in teaching—the eyes, the ears, the

emotions—the deeper is the learning and appreciative process. The unit here reported was thrust upon its conductors and suffered from insufficient planning. Furthermore, the method was applied to a problem which, crucially important though it may be, is nevertheless a marginal one for most youth for the greater part of their time. With refinement and more intensive planning, it can be applied in the study of municipal government, problems of transit, banking facilities, health resources, and a host of other local problems.

<sup>3</sup>Where the burial of a Korea veteran, an American Indian, was halted after the body was half-way in the grave, when it was discovered that the dead soldier was "not of the Caucasian race." At the intervention of the President of the United States he was subsequently buried in the Arlington National Cemetery.

# *Junior College Education in Thailand*

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

THAILAND (Siam), with its 18,000,000 people, four years of compulsory education, and reported literacy in 1947 of forty per cent, is developing special interest in education of junior college level, both publicly and privately controlled and supported.

Acting upon a request from the government of Thailand to advise it on a needed program of educational development, a UNESCO consultative mission comprising Sir John Sargent and Dr. Pedro T. Orata visited Thailand in February, 1949, made an over-all survey of educational needs, and formulated recommendations to meet the more pressing of these needs.

As a result of the report of this Mission, a ten-year plan of educational development was adopted in 1950. UNESCO's assistance was asked for three major areas: (1) establishment of a pilot project in a selected province in order to set up a complete plan of education in miniature in which could be developed modern curriculums, methodology, textbooks, instructional materials, health education, adult education, and training of Thai personnel; (2) establishment of three training colleges for education of teachers, including both in-service and pre-service training; and (3) establishment of two "technical institutes," one in Bangkok and one in a large rural town.

The UNESCO Mission, resulting

from these recommendations, is headed by Thomas Wilson, principal of Ardmore College, Auckland, New Zealand, who came to Bangkok in November, 1950. The complete recommended program, however, was too comprehensive and too expensive to be undertaken by UNESCO alone. Consequently, the assistance of the United States Point Four Program has been secured to aid in the three projects, particularly the third one.

Chief of the Point Four Program in Thailand is Earl Hutchinson, formerly of the U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., who began work in May, 1951. United States agencies have agreed to furnish eight vocational experts for the technical institute program and to make an initial grant of \$112,000 for equipment. A further request for \$142,000 is under consideration at Washington.

The technical institute program is under the direction of Dr. R. Eyeman, who is on leave from the faculty of Florida State University, of which Dr. Doak S. Campbell is president. Dr. Eyeman had just finished drawing up detailed plans for the "Bangkok Technical Institute," scheduled to open in Bangkok in May, 1952.

It should be explained that the Thai school system is of the 4-6-2-4 pattern—four years of primary school (compulsory), six years of secondary school, two years of pre-

university work, and a four-year university course. It is planned that the new two-year technical institute will require the standard pre-university work for entrance; thus it will be of exactly junior college level as found in the United States, based upon twelve years of previous education. There are now a considerable number of vocational schools of secondary level in Thailand, but they are inadequately equipped and limited in vocational areas served.

It is expected that the new technical institutes will greatly strengthen vocational training by raising its level and extending its scope. It is planned that first offerings will be in the fields of building trades and construction, commerce, home economics, and printing. Others to be added as soon as facilities, equipment, and trained teachers can be secured include electricity, tailoring, photography, radio, auto mechanics, machinist trades, and sheet metal working.

Others contemplated for later additions to the program include hotel and restaurant management, air conditioning and refrigeration, steam laundry and dry cleaning, commercial ceramics, television, plastics, leather work, watch repair and precision instruments, aeronautics, gold and silversmithing, metallurgy, and telephone installation and maintenance.

Approximately four million *bahts* (\$200,000) has been ap-

proved by the Thailand Parliamentary Budget Committee for support of the Bangkok Technical Institute for the academic year 1952-53. It is planned by the National Ministry of Education to establish two more technical institutes of the same junior college level outside the capital after the Bangkok institution is operating satisfactorily.

Bangkok Christian College is a high grade institution for boys which for many years has been operated under the auspices of the American Presbyterian Mission. It has an enrollment of 1,600 boys, all that it can accommodate with its present plant, in primary and secondary schools only. The principal is Mr. Charoen Vijaya, who recently secured the Master's Degree in Education from the University of Chicago; the dean is Mr. Areeya Semprasart, who has a Master's Degree from the University of Southern California.

Mr. Vijaya has plans for securing a supplementary campus and establishing a junior college, of the American type, to care especially for the educational needs of the two hundred or more boys who now graduate each year from his secondary school. Financial conditions, however, have made necessary deferment of these plans, but it is hoped that they may be realized in the not too distant future. Mr. Vijaya is very sure there is educational need for junior college work under private auspices in the country.



# *Toward Improved Programs of Student Personnel Services*

J. ANTHONY HUMPHREYS

**H**ow many junior colleges can justifiably be proud of their programs of student personnel service? Of their guidance activities? How many are genuinely satisfied with their efforts to serve the needs and interests of individual students through personnel services?

In the minds of those persons responsible for student personnel activities, even the best programs leave much to be desired. The chances are that more dissatisfaction exists in those junior colleges where the plans and efforts are rather well developed than in other junior colleges which have narrowly conceived, superficial programs.

## *Present Status of Personnel Services in Junior Colleges*

Since its inception in 1946, the Committee on Student Personnel Services of the American Association of Junior Colleges has had the task of finding out some facts about the extent and quality of programs of student personnel services in member institutions. From this vantage point the following conclusions, among others, can be cited: (1) relatively few junior colleges have programs of personnel service adequate to meet the needs of students; (2) student personnel service is not recognized in sufficient degree as one of the major functions in the operation of junior colleges; (3) testing and counseling

of students—aspects of personnel service—have not been satisfactorily developed or pursued; (4) too few professionally qualified personnel workers have been given full-time assignments to personnel programs; (5) lack of in-service training of faculty counselors is apparent; (6) there exists a tendency for the head, or assistant head, of some junior colleges to carry too much responsibility for detailed operation of student personnel services.

If one compares the public statements of officers of junior colleges concerning student personnel services with actually functioning programs in their institutions, one gains the impression that there is more talk than production of helpful services to students. Even though it may be granted that acceptance of the personnel point of view and outlining of plans must precede action in a situation; nevertheless, in some instances relatively little practice materializes after the philosophy and proposed plans have been discussed. All too frequently whatever is done is a superficial attack on the problem. Stop-gap measures often satisfy junior college officials and their boards of control.

## *Reasons for Inadequate Personnel Services*

The foregoing statements are not

meant to point the finger of personal blame at any group of junior college administrative personnel or at individuals. Combinations of circumstances or uncontrollable factors frequently prevent officials of junior colleges from developing good programs of student personnel service. In spite of their own enlightenment with reference to the function and their sincere desire to organize an effective program, their efforts are hampered. They are forced to compromise, to accept the idea of less-than-adequate programs of personnel service.

The reasons suggested here for inadequate programs of student personnel service are based on discussions with junior college officers and on observations and experiences of the author. These suggestions should not be considered as definitive, final, or complete. It should be recognized, too, that not all of the factors exist in all situations, nor do they have equal weight. Quite logically, they appear in different combinations in various institutions.

As the first step in this discussion of reasons for inadequacy of programs of student personnel service, a list is presented:

1. Lack of complete acceptance of the personnel point of view as a working basis for establishment of the function;

2. Lack of appreciation of the idea that the function of student personnel service is an essential, integral part of the educative process;

3. Failure to "sell" the personnel point of view;

4. Lack of sufficient appropriations to establish and operate the program;

5. Lack of professionally-qualified personnel;

6. Lack of appropriate physical facilities;

7. Too little time devoted day-by-day to operation of the program;

8. Jealousy over prerogatives on the part of staff and faculty personnel.

The existence of the many superficial programs of student personnel service and of guidance activities is due basically, in the thinking of this writer, to failure to convince administrative heads, other staff members, faculties, and boards of control that the personnel point of view is one of the fundamental concepts for the guidance of an educational institution. Despite the number of presentations of the idea in books, articles, speeches, and committee discussions over a period of many years, the returns by way of even good programs of personnel service are too meager. There are at present some junior colleges where personnel and guidance services occupy too lowly a position. They do not carry the weight of influence which they should in the determination of fundamental educational policies. The personnel point of view has not been whole-heartedly accepted as a working basis in the development of educational programs and pro-

cedures. In many situations the personnel service function is not regarded as an essential, integral part of the educative process. It is too often regarded as a "fifth wheel" that is easily expendable when other pressures are experienced. Let there be a decline in financial income, for example, and then analyze what happens to the personnel program. All too frequently this function is cut down out of proportion as compared with other services.

The function of instruction is regarded by boards of control, by staff and faculty as the primary business of a junior college. Student personnel service will never be able to make its potential contributions to instruction until the personnel point of view is intelligently understood and wholeheartedly accepted by staffs and faculties. Those persons who have understood and accepted that point of view have failed in some instances in their efforts to explain the function of student personnel service and to make it tangible. They have not been tactfully aggressive or sufficiently insistent. As "missionaries" they should have expected rebuffs and obstacles. They have given up too soon and have been satisfied with too little.

The lack of sufficiently large financial appropriations has been another major reason for failure to develop satisfactory, adequate programs of student personnel service. This lack is evident in insufficient full-time, professionally-

trained staffs to operate the programs. Too little time has been provided for the functioning of student personnel activities. In too many junior colleges these activities have been operated on a part-time basis. The importance of the function even to a so-called small junior college is actually significant enough to warrant a full-time director of the personnel or guidance program. Nor have interested and qualified members of teaching faculties been allowed the amount of time essential for pursuit of the activities.

Lack of money has been evident also in lack of physical facilities needed for the day-to-day operation of the personnel program. In some junior colleges sufficient room space has not been made available. Counselors have been forced to try to conduct individual interviews within sight and hearing of other students and staff personnel. Some personnel workers have not had appropriate room space for administering tests. In some instances proper office equipment and testing devices have not existed.

Then, too, some junior colleges have sought to save money by assigning to the personnel function persons who have had little or no professional training for the task. On occasion, the exigencies of a situation have dictated "taking care" of surplus teaching or staff personnel by transfer to the personnel program. Oftentimes these persons are not suited in personal

qualities, nor by training for the work.

There are examples also of unfortunate selection of trained personnel workers — unfortunate in the sense that they could not fit into the local situation or, in spite of their professional training, were not adaptable to student personnel service. Like all other professions, the function of student personnel service attracts some men and women who cannot perform acceptably because of some of their own personality traits. There is a report that one junior college dropped its program of student personnel service because of the unfortunate choice of one director of the function. Fortunately for the welfare of junior college students, this is an isolated instance.

It is not possible to determine just how prevalent is the factor of jealousy over prerogatives among junior college staff and faculty personnel as a fundamental reason for inadequate student personnel service, but without doubt, such jealousies have held back and even prevented optimum development of the function of some junior colleges. These difficulties are particularly acute where reorganization of the staff of an institution to perform student personnel service entails transfer of previously held functions to someone else. The situation is delicate whether the transfer is made to a brand-new staff member or to one who has been with the institution for some time. In the planning of the organization

of personnel service for the first time in a junior college or in effecting a reorganization, possible jealousies and resulting attitudes among staff personnel are delicate, calculated risks.

#### *Need for Personnel Services*

Despite the apparent underlying note of pessimism in the foregoing paragraphs, it should not be inferred that the function of the student personnel service is likely to fail, that it is rapidly disappearing, or that it will be completely eliminated as a fad or frill if, and when, discouraging pressures in junior colleges develop. By and large, personnel service has passed its apprenticeship. It has proved its solid worth in very many institutions. In these junior colleges it is no longer regarded as a frill to be dispensed with when times are "bad." It has achieved a permanent place in the family of junior college services.

The fact of the matter is that the function of student personnel service is being increasingly recognized for its true worth and potentiality. It is a facilitating service, a worthy working partner of the function of instruction. Necessary as instruction is, it can not achieve singlehanded the principal educational task of any junior college. Assistance through the program of student personnel service is needed by the instructional agencies if individual students are to be guided toward maximum development of their potentialities. Classroom activities and contacts



with instructors outside their classrooms need to be supplemented by personnel services for complete realization of the broad educational aims of the junior college.

Today's youth sorely need effective counseling to help them combat present-day confusion brought about by such factors as the draft and enlistment of manpower, dead-end jobs offering relatively higher starting wages, and shifting occupational opportunities. These new elements, as well as the more usual sources of bewilderment for youth, highlight effective counseling programs as an inevitable essential.

#### *Benefits of Student Personnel Service*

If its potentialities are fully recognized, student personnel service stands able to serve significantly not only the students but also the teaching faculty and the administrative staff. For example, through its knowledge of the student body, gained by testing, counseling, and research, student personnel service is in a strategic position to inform the faculty and administrative staff concerning the special characteristics of the student body, the degree of students' success in adjusting to the curriculums, and the extent of the effectiveness of the curriculums and the extra-curriculum activities in the educational and personal lives of the students. These services, of course, are over and above the specific tasks normally assigned to the personnel department in its contacts with

groups of students and with individual students.

The personnel department should be regarded as an agency which can supply a great deal of objective, impersonal information about the impact of the curriculums, their content, and methods on the student body. If the junior college is sincerely interested in serving its student body in the fashion best suited to their needs and interests, it ought to lean heavily on the department of personnel service for technical assistance. In some situations the personnel department is likely to be the sole agency in the college that is almost wholly objective. On occasion, the teaching departments find it difficult to divorce themselves from self-interest. On occasion, also, the general administration finds it difficult to be objective in its evaluations. Necessarily, the department of personnel service should be given rather free rein in its prosecution of research and in stating its conclusions based on research. There should be no "touchy" areas. If there are such areas, student personnel service is prevented from making its maximum contributions.

#### *Informing the Community about the College*

Student personnel service as a program lives and grows in strength in proportion to the services rendered to the students, the community, the administrative staff and faculty. Once the personnel point of view has been whole-



heartedly adopted by a junior college and has been put into practice in a program of personal service, that function gains increased acceptance and importance by the extent and quality of its services.

Some administrators of educational institutions and some personnel workers are beginning to realize that an effective means of public relations lies in explaining what is being done in a college through its student personnel services. Due to mounting costs, financial supporters of public junior colleges (the tax payers) and financial supporters of private institutions (parents and donors) are likely to become much more insistent in the future about learning what is done with the money. Given an active, producing student personnel program, the junior college can make more tangible to its community many benefits offered by the college. For example, parents are concerned about their children's achievements, interests, potentialities, levels of adjustment. Test results, records of progress in all phases of a student's personality, vocational guidance programs, placement records, and information about the success of graduates furnish concrete evidence to the parents and community of the worth of college. The source of such evidence, as well as the service itself, rests in the personnel program. Fundamentally, such a potentiality of student personnel service is a "plus value," a by-product, not the essential reason for existence

of the function. It is tempting, however, to observe that such an intangible item, and a frill in the opinion of some persons, can serve in unexpected, practical fashion.

#### *Philosophy Underlying Student Personnel Service*

Included in its activities, the Committee on Student Personnel Service has stated its idea of the philosophy which underlies student personnel service. As bases for this statement the Committee has drawn on the thinking and writing of many persons and on the experiences of members of the Committee. The following statement should be regarded as tentative, subject to revisions growing out of later suggestions from personnel workers in junior colleges. The Committee welcomes reactions to any aspects of this article.

Attention to the needs and fostering of the maximum growth of the individual student in all aspects of his personality are the basic emphases in the philosophy of student personnel service. Therefore, it is a primary obligation of a junior college to render assistance to the individual student in these phases of his personality: intellectual capacity; aesthetic appreciations; emotional traits; physical condition; social and civic relationships; vocational potentialities and skills; economic condition; moral and spiritual values. This philosophy places emphasis upon the maximum development of the individual student as an organic whole rather

than solely upon his intellectual development.

More specifically, a program of student personnel service has as its basis the attitude of assisting the individual student to learn how to achieve the following goals:

1. To understand himself in all aspects of personality;
2. To make the most of all his capacities, qualities, and interests;
3. To adjust himself to the varied situations in his total environment and, for the sake of his highest development, to modify some aspects of his environment, whenever possible;
4. To make his own decisions and to solve his problems independently;
5. To discover his potential contributions to society;
6. To decide how he can render these contributions to society to the fullest possible extent.

The keynote of this philosophy, or point of view, of student personnel service is helping the individual student to develop himself to the limit of all his capacities and potentialities.

Implicit in this point of view are the following ideas:

- I. The growth or development of the individual is conditioned by many factors peculiar to him:
  - A. the background, abilities, and attitudes which he brings to the school situation;
  - B. the experiences — in classes and outside of classes — which are offered to him by the col-

lege, as well as his reactions to these experiences.

II. Much of the responsibility for growth of the individual must rest on the efforts of the student himself.

#### *Definition of Terms*

For the sake of clearer understanding and as a basis for its work, the Committee adopted the following tentative definitions of terms.

*Student personnel service* is the systematically organized and operated program of assistance to the individual student in the realization of his own best adjustments to problems and situations and in the realization of the highest achievements possible within his limitations.

*Guidance service* is one major element in student personnel service. It is that over-all aspect which furnishes experiences and assistance to the individual student helpful in self-understanding, in making decisions, and in planning.

*Counseling, testing, and interviewing* are processes, or tools, used in the program of guidance service. They are the core of guidance services.

*Counseling* is the process of individualizing the procedures involved in assistance to the individual student toward achievement of the maximum realization of his potentialities.

The *interview* is the face-to-face, direct contact which occurs when the counselor and counselee meet to deal with the counselee's prob-

lems. The interview is the focus of counseling. It is the essential means whereby all the information concerning the individual can be directed to the diagnosis of the situation and treatment of the individual.

*Testing* is the process of appraising the individual, the objective means of becoming acquainted with the counselee.

#### *Areas of Student Personnel Work*

As a working basis, the Committee has constructed the following outline of areas of personnel work in junior colleges.

In offering certain personnel services, the junior college can feel that it is making the best possible provision for the development of the individual. Some of these services are primarily functions of student personnel workers. Others of these services are shared jointly with members of the instructional and administrative staffs, or are the direct responsibilities of staff and faculty members outside of the department of personnel service.

#### I. Orientation and high school relationships, involving

- A. high school visitation;
- B. orienting students to college life;

- 1. how to study;
- 2. college organizations;

- C. orienting students to their own capacities and potentialities:

recognition of personal limitations.

#### II. Admission procedures, involving

- A. evaluating high school records;
- B. testing—pre-college testing and at opening of freshman year;
- C. classification of students in curriculums and in specific classes and courses;
- D. health and physical examinations;
- E. organization of classes and class schedules;
- F. housing and boarding.

III. Guidance services: these services seek to help individual students solve their problems, largely by their own efforts and through the essential processes of counseling, testing, and interviewing. Students' problems may be classified in the following areas: academic (educational); vocational; health (physical and mental); social; financial; ethical and spiritual.

#### IV. Student life, involving

- A. student government;
- B. student social activities;
- C. intercollegiate activities and competitions;
- D. cooperative relations with national, state, and community activities;
- E. development of ethical and spiritual activities.

#### V. Job placement and follow-up involving

- A. establishment and operation of placement bu-

- reau (for part-time and full-time workers)
  - B. student aid, scholarships, loan funds;
  - C. on-the-job training;
  - D. later refresher and upgrading programs for graduates.
- VI. Administration of student personnel service, involving
- A. assignments of responsibilities to staff and teachers;
  - B. in-service training of teachers and others who participate in the process of counseling;
  - C. coordination of all elements in student personnel service, including cooperation with the academic activities;
  - D. physical facilities needed for the program;
  - E. cumulative personnel records, including academic records;
  - F. research and evaluation of the program of student personnel service;
  - G. relation of costs of student personnel service to total costs in the junior college.

*Toward Improvement of Student Personnel Service*

Neither in quality nor in scope of student personnel services can all junior colleges reach the same level of achievement. Each institution, however, can and should be dissatisfied with its own personnel program. There is probably no jun-

ior college that is genuinely satisfied with its efforts to help students toward their optimum of self-development. But dissatisfaction need not lead to such a state of discouragement that attempts to build a good program of student personnel services cease. Since the function is such a necessary factor in achieving the fundamental purposes of the junior college, efforts to develop just as good a personnel program as possible must be redoubled; otherwise, students are not served as they should be served.

The resolution to build a better program of student personnel services entails recognition of the need of spending more money on it. As in other aspects of an institution, something cannot be had for nothing. Quite naturally some junior colleges are able to expend more money on this function than others. It is the obligation of each institution to interview its own conscience, to analyze its own situation minutely (financial status and staff) in the light of the principles and areas of student personnel services, and then to decide what can be done.

An illuminating and interesting first approach would be analysis of some of an institution's cost figures. Most junior colleges know, or can find out with little trouble, what percentage of expenditures is spent on instruction, what percentage is spent on maintenance, what proportion of its costs is expended in other ways. With some additional effort a junior college can dis-

cover what its current student personnel services cost. The percentage expended on this function can then be figured. In most institutions the chances are that the proportion is significantly low, particularly in the light of the school's obligation to students.

In the course of arriving at cost figures of student personnel service, the junior college learns exactly what is the scope of its personnel program. With these facts in hand—time of staff and teaching personnel, activities attempted, equipment used, etc.—the institution should set them over against recommended areas of personnel work and over against procedures. Thereby the lack in services becomes very apparent.

Another basis of comparison of junior colleges in their student personnel services is the ratio of the number of students per equivalent full-time personnel worker. Although such a ratio does not of itself prove that the quality of a personnel program is better in one junior college than in another, that kind of ratio can serve as a general means of judging fairly tangibly the relative emphases given the function in different institutions. By and large, more adequate personnel services exist in the institution that has a "small" number of students per equivalent full-time personnel worker than in a junior college that reports a "large" number of students per personnel worker.

Each junior college answers to

itself in the matter of its services. No junior college, however, can be satisfied with itself if it does not measure up in achievement at least with institutions of its own size and general character. Some institutions set their sights even higher.

Each junior college has its own philosophy of education, its own objectives, and its own clientele. Within this framework it performs its functions. In the development of student personnel services a junior college ought to work out a long-range plan. Certainly a program of personnel service, suited to a particular junior college, cannot spring into existence full-blown overnight. Many factors must be considered. Some of these factors are: characteristics of the student body; needs and interests of the students; source and extent of the financial support of the institution; basic reason for the existence of the particular junior college.

With these factors in mind, a junior college interested in improving its program of student personnel service should list in detail its current efforts to render such service and compare the result with a generally recognized, complete program. Gaps are likely to appear. Then the task is to set up a list of priorities, together with financial and personnel needs required to achieve each step in the long-range plan. Although it may be clear that some activities can never be included in the blueprint and that only partial achievement of others can be realistically hoped for, the



junior college can feel that it has a plan and program in operation. At the beginning, the program may be restricted, but the junior college "is on its way." Strength and confidence are gained as each step in the list of priorities is achieved.

#### *In Conclusion*

Development of student personnel services to a point where more junior colleges will be justifiably proud of their personnel programs requires highly coordinated teamwork within their own staffs and faculties. This function flourishes to the benefit of the students when all departments—teaching, administrative, and business operations—cooperate wholeheartedly toward the single goal of helping students achieve maximum personal growth.

There must also be teamwork on the part of members of the American Association of Junior Colleges by way of exchange of information about their several policies, practices, and achievements. Through studies and reports of national scope, genuine progress can be

made in improvement of student personnel service in individual junior colleges. This article would be incomplete without noting that for the past five years exactly this kind of willing cooperation has been evident. The record shows that fifty-three junior colleges of the Association for twenty-five states have served the national Committee on Student Personnel Service as contributing collaborators. Already a respectable body of material is on hand. A larger volume for more institutions is needed as well as extensive further study leading to the development of procedures for the evaluation of programs of student personnel services. This is a long-range plan.

At the moment, the most important goal is the guiding of each institution's efforts by the personnel point of view and the improvement of student personnel service just as rapidly as the essential resources can be found. May there be a healthy state of dissatisfaction with current achievements in serving students and the community!

# *The Status and Trends of Physical Education Programs in Negro Junior Colleges*

THOMAS A. HART

THIS investigation has grown out of interest that has developed in a graduate course on the junior college level. Through discussions inside and outside of class and after visiting a few junior colleges, it is the feeling of this investigator that this program needs further study.

As far as the investigator has been able to ascertain, there have been no studies of the status and trends of physical education programs in Negro junior colleges. The study herein reported represents an attempt to measure the programs, to obtain an appreciation of the status and trends of the physical education programs in Negro junior colleges in the United States, and to discover those aspects of physical education where weakness or strength is evident in program facilities and leadership.

The findings of the study may be of assistance to individuals and colleges as they evaluate their own physical education programs.

Twenty-seven questionnaires were sent to all the Negro junior colleges in the United States and sixteen (59.2 per cent) were returned.

Due to the fact that the survey was confidential, there has been

no attempt to distinguish between the types of colleges as to their scholastic standing such as class "A," "B," "C," or "D."

All the institutions that returned the questionnaires maintain some type of physical education program although only 62.3 per cent of these are adequate according to national standards. Three-fourths of them are rated either by the state or regional agencies.

The average enrollment at the responding schools was between 200 and 300; while three schools had over 400 students; and one had approximately 1,000. Ninety-four per cent of the institutions stressed competitive sports and calisthenics, with only one school stressing aquatics. The returns from the questionnaires reveal that seventy-five per cent of the schools' libraries currently purchases at least one magazine related to physical education or health, while eighteen per cent purchases three or more. Medical examinations and corrective programs were stressed in only four (23.7 per cent) of the institutions.

Most of the Negro junior colleges have two persons engaged in physical education work. All indicated their physical education staff members had at least the bachelor's

degree and seven (43.7 per cent) had the master's degree. It is encouraging to note that the personnel are well trained and that some of the schools have instructors working on degrees beyond the master's.

The most important need is adequate gymnasiums, swimming pools, larger staffs, and better and more equipment. Ambitious directors should be able to provide these, seeing that ninety-three per cent of the administrative heads in these institutions appreciate the value of physical education, with none revealing other departments who were openly antagonistic or see no value in physical education. The results of this study show that physical education for the atypical individual has not received the attention due such an important problem. All schools have the use of some type of an athletic field, and 62.5 per cent have at least one tennis court. Although the schools in this study have athletic fields and tennis courts, many of them are far below par for junior colleges.

Not enough attention is given to medical examinations or physical education classification tests. Schools at the junior college level should administer tests to appraise physical development, strength, circulatory-respiratory condition, body mechanics, flexibility, and motor ability. Although 87.5 per cent of the institutions give credit for physical education, only one offers a major in physical educa-

tion. Two offer physical education as a minor.

The findings in this study seem to justify the following general conclusions:

1. The state of health and physical education in Negro junior colleges has improved during the past fifteen years.
2. The veteran enrollment has not caused any serious changes in their programs; therefore, no drastic changes should be expected in most instances.
3. The faculty in most cases is qualified to teach physical education.
4. Only 43.7 per cent of the junior colleges have adequate physical education programs for the following reasons:
  - a. inadequate physical education building and athletic field
  - b. failure to use available tests for physical education
  - c. lack of proper staff
  - d. lack of equipment
  - e. lack of administrative cooperation
5. Ninety-three per cent of the departments other than physical education are appreciative of physical education.
6. There has been very little attention given to swimming except in the case of two junior colleges.

### *Recommendations*

On the basis of the results found, the investigator makes the following recommendations for a sound standardized program for physical education:

1. Increased staff facilities and budget to provide a complete physical education program for all students.
2. Medical examinations for all students with careful medical and dental follow-up prehabilitation service for remedial defects.
3. Due to present world conditions, required classes in basic physical fitness for those who are below average in the principal constituents of physical fitness, wherein more individual attention may be

given and the dosage more exactly supervised in accordance with the needs. In this work, emphasis is put on measured improvement.

4. Supplementary programs of recreational sports for those who are relatively fit and need psychological refreshment through play.
5. A recognized motor fitness test administered to all new students. Those who fail to pass this test should be required to take a course in basic physical fitness. A practical workbook should be used to guide the instructors and students. The writer has found the *Physical Fitness Workbook* by T. K. Cureton to be very practical for such use.<sup>1</sup>

6. An adequate program including the following: medical examinations, classification tests, remedial classes, required health and physical education classes, prescribed major's program, calisthenics, competitive sports, individual sports, aquatics, combatives, apparatus, tumbling, and a strong well-balanced intramural program. A library with current periodicals and with an appropriate selection of textbooks on health, physical education, and recreation is essential. Visual aids will be found very helpful.

<sup>1</sup>T. K. Cureton, *Physical Fitness Workbook* (Champaign, Illinois: Stipes Publishing Company, 1944).

# *Dean's Records and Personnel Cards*

CORNELIA CARTER

## *Philosophy*

SINCE educational philosophy has been changed within the past few years to include a general broadening of the individual and the development of the whole personality, the uses of record cards are just now coming into their own. Therefore, all phases of a student's well being must be considered in the most efficient counseling service.

Today, the student is no longer considered from the intellectual angle alone, but every effort is made to prepare him for a world of many demands. In the United States there is a need for well integrated persons. The psychologists have created a new realization for the human side of the graph, and it becomes more apparent than ever that a world philosophy of integration must be forthcoming. No longer is the student living in a world by himself. He must adapt himself to a group; the group must adapt itself to a nation; the nation must live with the world if it survives.

To guide, counsel, and chart this development, a useful system of records is a necessity. Not only is it the concern of one person in the present day college, but just as one person does not live alone in the world, neither can the records result from one person's opinions. In order to render the maximum service, the record and

personnel service in the present college dean's office must be well-organized, well-planned, and well-counseled.

## *History*

Personnel Records are fairly recent in use and adaption. Historically, they are an outgrowth of grade and attendance records, but they are quite evidently a child of the twentieth century psychological studies. As far back as 1838, Horace Mann introduced into the state of Massachusetts a permanent school register in book form. This was followed by Henry Barnard in Connecticut and by Samuel Lewis in Ohio. Until that time and even after these men and their work were introduced, many states and cities did not keep even adequate attendance and grade reports.

With the development of the recognition of individual differences, testing, and measuring, there arose the need for the recording of results. Hence, a record system came into being. Early names in this field are Charles M. Damprey (1909), Margaretta R. Voorhees (1912), and Eugene R. Smith (1918). One of the early record systems to be published and used throughout the country was the Strayer-Engelhardt system. This was followed by a second set of records called the Heck-Reader Uniform School Accounting sys-



tem, which was a result of charting the record systems used in 131 cities in the United States. The first system really to have as its aim an attempt to make the elementary and secondary system uniform was the Flynn-Utne Simplified Record System.

The important factor in this creation of a new type of record to chart individual growth and development as well as factual materials was the recognition that from the first records of mere attendance and grades a child accounting record was developed followed by the period of child guidance.

In the era of child guidance recognition, from 1930 to the present day, one may note first the work of the Committee on Personnel Methods of the American Council on Education by Professors Ben D. Wood of Columbia University and E. L. Clark of Northwestern University. This was the first of the American Council's record forms.

Following this first work several additions have been made and in various sizes until today there are four cumulative record cards provided by this council's work. These have been used for ten or twelve years and have been found to be basic in material offered and comprehensive in scope. These record forms may be had in four forms: (1) a folder for college students, (2) a folder for secondary students, (3) a card for elementary school students, and (4)

a card that may be used in either the elementary school or the secondary school.

In using these cards, the American Council on Education has stressed the fact that they are not copyrighted, and therefore any school administrator or personnel director is free to edit, use in part, or change in any way the material included. They have been particularly helpful to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, and this Association has joined the Council in its work in perfecting the card.

As another aid to the record card as published by the American Council on Education, the National Association of Secondary School Principals published a uniform transfer blank which works very well with the transferring of students and their material as recorded on the cumulative record card.

Last, and probably the most helpful piece of work done in this field, was that of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association which was started in 1934. This committee worked primarily with the following four points: (1) a behavior description form; (2) records in the fields of English, social studies, mathematics, science, foreign language, art, music, homemaking, and physical education; (3) reports to the parents; and (4) forms to be used in transferring students to college.

### *Administration*

Gaining maximum benefit from any record system depends primarily upon the material incorporated plus availability. It was found in this survey<sup>1</sup> that almost every dean mentioned the location of her records in regard to other records on the campus. Oftentimes, in cases where her office was adjacent to the registrar's, the academic records were omitted from her files; likewise, where the dean of men's office was adjoining, with a common reception room, various types of information were kept in a common file and the individual files for women students omitted certain statistical data.

Two of the larger schools reported that they no longer filled the offices of dean of men and dean of women. These schools had combined the service of the two offices into a guidance, personnel center, or created an office of dean of students. In these systems, however, the counselor service was highly developed both in the academic branches and in the dormitories. By far the majority, in fact one could say that ninety per cent of all colleges surveyed, still maintained the offices of dean of men and women. In these instances, and this occurred in both the larger and smaller colleges, the coun-

selor system was also found to be quite general.

Counselors, as referred to here, are not to be considered only as academic counselors but as delegated exponents of the dean's office. As a parallel to these faculty sponsors (their reports make up a helpful tally as to personality development), the smaller schools showed a growing tendency to organize upper class girls as senior counselors. In a very few cases they continued for the whole year, but generally they operated only for an orientation period of six weeks.

In addition to appointed faculty counselors, every college which maintains campus housing, without exception, requires reports at specified periods. Also, where a situation of out-in-town housing exists, the "hostess" returns a like report every month or at the end of each semester.

The counselor service, whether faculty, student, or housemother, cannot be over estimated in importance. Regardless of providing specific questionnaires at intervals, the comparative value of these checks from the beginning to the end of the year gives an unparalleled picture of progress and development. Emotional conflicts, personality snags, growth, and maturity, as well as financial difficulties, can be much more easily calculated through individual counselors than through any other channels. Of course, a dean's own record card of her personal coun-

<sup>1</sup>The sixty-three colleges and universities in this study were selected from the annual list of small colleges published by *Good Housekeeping* (omitting boys' schools), from the colleges in the area of states closely allied to Indiana, and from schools to which Vincennes University students transfer.

seling with each girl is likewise invaluable, but often too large a number of students prevents frequent and lengthy conferences.

Therefore, the combination of the three or four profiles—the dean's, the faculty advisor's, house-mother's, and possibly a student counselor's—add up to a helpful personality picture of the student. The report blanks from counselors are filed with the general record card in all cases. If the record folder is used, these records are easily inserted. Not many letters explained the filing of these records in instances where the folder type was not used, but this is no doubt taken care of by other files, or kept in the counselor's files until the end of the semester. Schools using the large manila envelope for these reports, plus the correspondence and memos concerning each individual, collect them each year and file them in the permanent envelope upon graduation.

In scope it was found that the main use of a dean's record file was to picture individual personality qualities, talents, and record developments. The dean's office takes care of guidance in such matters and the records reflect progress and method of handling each situation. Not only are such records essential during the college years, but also they can be of definite help in writing letters of recommendation, advising steps to be taken in post-college years, and creating almost a "bank account" of data and help both for the col-

lege staff and the individual in question.

As previously mentioned, the record or personnel file contains necessary statistical data such as name, address, parents, schools attended, etc., and from there the similarity ceases. Depending upon the school, its size, its administrative office system, practically as many contents can be counted as records. To survey the most general necessities when referring to a dean's record card during undergraduate days and in post graduate days, too, a few definite matters of information are a "must."

First, there should be a section for test results. These may be few in number or consist of an added list each year, but they should be on the record card.

Next, other than the names of the parents and addresses, there should be a space for information concerning the parents. This should concern occupation, nationality, race, college training (or highest education received), as well as information on guardians or foster parents, if such be the case. This background is often a determining factor in ironing out personality problems.

There should be ample space for schools attended, public and private, as well as other colleges. If a state has well-developed high school-college cooperation, which was found to be the case in the state of Oregon, a wealth of information is already at the dean's

disposal when a student enters.<sup>2</sup>

Conferences, as suggested previously, both by the dean and by the counselor, are best kept on regular counseling sheets. The fact that these memos can be added at various times during the college year makes them more maneuverable.

Activities play an important part in picturing the growth of personality. If a small portion of a student's card is designated for this purpose, it not only serves for identification, but it also easily charts development and is an aid to the advisor. This part should extend back into the high school years, as well as continue during the college years.

From this point of required and necessary information, one can add countless information points either on the card or through separate memos. The one major point of information—academic grades or even semester averages—may be added at specified times. Not all personnel records included this factor. Much depends upon the size of the college, the availability of the registrar's files, etc.

Regardless of the type of card used, the filing system must then be worked out so as to be efficient. Very few of the colleges mentioned their filing of "active" or "inactive" records. In fact, only one gave a definite system other than to mention where they were filed.

<sup>2</sup>Oregon has a state-wide system of high school records which are transferred to the colleges when a student enters. They are planned to work together as a unit.

The one system which did go into some detail explained that an "active" file was used for undergraduates in attendance, an "inactive" for withdrawals, and a graduate file for those who had completed their college work at that institution.

No doubt it is due to the increase of the older students on any campus, as well as the married status of some, that the record cards often provided space for employment notes. This was common among the larger schools, and non-existent in the girls' colleges.

A useful and necessary part of the record is the class schedule of each student. None of the permanent record cards included this schedule, which is logical. It is a variable item and certainly is not necessary for a permanent file. However, at least sixty per cent of the colleges sent a schedule card with their other material. It is required of the women students on those campuses to fill out one each semester and to inform the dean's office if there is any change of schedule.

These cards also varied in the amount of other material included; they ranged from providing just a line for the name to a condensed summary of vital campus information, such as school, address, phone, home address, parents' names, and major area of study. It is evident that these are filed separately from the permanent personnel folders and are readily accessible for general office information service.

In analyzing the personnel record cards, a few obvious deductions could be drawn. Although most of the records happened to be of the card type (twenty cards, twelve folder-type tag boards, two folded paper sheets, four composite sheets to be cut apart, two brown manila envelopes) the correspondence indicated a preference for the folder-type card for the purpose of filing other material with the personnel record. From the analysis of those who were changing, it was evident that the correspondence, counselor's sheets, date slips, and miscellaneous memos were often of as much importance as the fac-

tual material. The large manila envelopes seemed to be slightly unwieldy for year to year filing, but when used for an after-graduation depository, they might be more satisfactory.

In order to tabulate clearly the most obvious areas in all the personnel record sheets, the general areas of content were grouped under the following headings: (1) Factual Content, (2) High School and Educational Background, (3) College Record Data, (4) Advisor Data and Space (when included on card, sometimes a separate sheet), (5) Personality Rating, (6) Health Data, and (7) Test Data.



# *A Milestone a Mile High*

RODNEY TOWNLEY

THE problem of introducing more general education into the college music curriculum has long needed serious consideration. It was fundamentally this problem which brought the college music instructors together recently in the mile-high state of Colorado. The agenda for the first meeting, however, went far beyond the confines of the original problem of general education, and the cooperative discussion between the junior and senior colleges has marked a milestone in the history of Colorado education.

For a long time, educators in the junior college field have felt a need for closer cooperation among the various universities, colleges, and junior colleges on a state or regional level. Some progress has been made in this direction; more should be. The individuality of an institution, whether it be a junior college or a four-year school, must be maintained. Four-year institutions must guard against too much standardization of courses. There are many problems that vary greatly with individual institutions that could not and should not be reconciled to standardized procedures. Those problems common to all institutions, however, should be discussed and a common procedure adopted. The junior colleges must keep their individuality but, at the same time, must recognize the fact that their four-year brother institutions will still have to make some

arbitrary decisions by which the junior colleges are bound to abide if they intend to protect the transfer of their students.

There was a time when senior colleges, for all practical purposes, ignored the existence of junior colleges. Year by year the list of transfers from junior colleges to the upper divisions of the four-year schools continues to grow. These four-year colleges must face the fact that the problems of the junior colleges, in many cases, will also be theirs.

Many educators believe that some progress has been made in improving the understanding between the junior colleges and the four-year colleges in Colorado. The music departments and the colleges of music of all universities, colleges, and junior colleges in the state are now organized into a group called the Colorado Music Educators' Association, College Section. The organizational meeting of this group was held during the regular sessions of the C.M.-E.A. convention in Denver. Thirteen of the fifteen privately and publicly supported college level institutions were represented, and the other two indicated interest in the project plans of the group.

Some of the problems for committee consideration are discussed below.

The first problem considered was that of the transfer of lower divi-

sion music students from the junior colleges to four-year colleges. This is one of the most serious problems faced by the junior college counselor today. Perhaps from this and future studies, some progress can be made. Involved in this study will be an attempt to standardize course titles, course credit, and course content for at least the basic courses in the lower division. In this same area, textbooks will be evaluated and recommendations made. The problem of transfer will involve considerable consultation with registrars and deans. The discussions that result may help to clarify some of the obscure methods now in use.

The second area for investigation is the possible development of a standard set of minimum entrance requirements to be used in all colleges in admitting freshmen music students. This set of requirements will probably embrace only that material usually classified as background and will not attempt to set performance standards for various instruments which can best be left to individual instructors. A by-product of this investigation may well be the sending of copies of the minimum requirements to primary and secondary school officials with the suggestion that they meet them by offering suitable courses and music programs. In this way, the colleges of music and the public schools may begin to see that they are all a part of the overall educational plan, not isolated and unrelated institutions.

As a third area of study, one of the four-year colleges indicated an interest in having students in its graduate school establish follow-up study machinery for music departments so that these departments could carry on better their programs of guidance. Such a study could be valuable in altering course content, streamlining required courses, and providing more general education material within the curriculum.

A fourth need expressed by the group was that of obtaining more recognition in the state music organization. In the past, the C.M.-E.A. has been largely concerned with primary and secondary music education. Recognition for the new group will depend largely on the work of the other committees rather than on that of a special committee. If the other groups are able to reach some definite conclusions and to suggest some improvements here and there, the recognition will come almost automatically. The colleges have been listed for some time as part of the state organization.

It was further suggested, as a fifth area of study, that instruction, materials, and textbooks be openly compared and possibly improved through exchange of course outlines and final examinations. It was agreed that some considerable effort should be spent in determining how to meet the needs of general education both for the music student and for the general arts student seeking a lay course or two

in the field of music. This topic will undoubtedly furnish material for some heated debate.

From the five suggested areas of study, the committee selected three for consideration during the academic year of 1951-52.

The first problem was that of establishing a minimum standard for college entrance for the music students in the state of Colorado. The committee assigned to this task consisted of three senior college instructors and one junior college instructor. Members of the committee have defined the problem as this: in the public school program, in comparison with other academic fields, students who are interested in making music a life work have too little opportunity for developing their abilities and backgrounds. This is particularly true in the case of theoretical background. Certain recommendations for improvement of primary and secondary music requirements will doubtless come from this study. Along with those recommendations a set of minimum standards for freshman entrance will be forthcoming.

The second area selected for immediate study is one which involves the transfer of a lower division student from one institution to another—the junior college graduate in particular.

This committee has found through interviews that in the typical music major's course of study wide variations exist in the treatment of the five general areas:

theory, history, applied music, public school music, and general education. Catalog listings, institutional requirements, departmental recommendations, outstanding differences and points of agreement in these areas are being studied in the light of their effect on the transfer of the lower division student.

Follow-up studies on music graduates from the four-year institutions in the state was the third area chosen for immediate committee consideration. Some of the four-year colleges have already begun such a program; the others are getting underway. The job of this committee will be to set up machinery for obtaining and evaluating follow-up information. This will involve close cooperation with the personnel officers of all colleges in the region and will undoubtedly be a long-term investigation. By examining courses of study and interviewing graduates in the various music fields, the committee hopes to compile information on the relative merits of the general education course versus the specialized course for professional musicians and music educators. It is further hoped that from this examination of the end product some intelligent moves can be made in the realm of curriculum revision.

Seriousness of purpose was in evidence throughout the meeting. Willingness to recognize and to cooperate with one another in these projects is evidenced by the fact that the officer distribution lists the president from a junior college;

and the secretary from a junior college. The governing board includes three members: one member from a four-year college or university, one from a junior college and one at large.

Every effort was made by the steering committee to set up the project committees to have one representative from a four-year college, one from a large university, and one from a junior college. The hope was that in this way a better cross section of fact and opinion could be brought to bear on each

of the problems. It was further believed that many obstacles in the way of honest and open discussion could be removed.

It is hoped that if this project is carefully nurtured for a few years, by hard and conscientious work on the part of the officers and committees, the group may develop into the capstone of the music education program in Colorado, and through its study and suggestions, the music program of the state at the elementary and secondary levels can be greatly improved and supported.

# *Some Aspects of the Status of Junior Colleges in the United States*

## *Alabama*

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**I**N ALABAMA there has been no legislative measure to set up a system of community colleges as has been done in several states in the Southern area. As a result, the growth of the junior college movement here has been slow and has been carried forward mostly by different religious denominations or by private enterprise. Recent figures show only ten junior colleges in the state, none privately operated, and one a branch of a state institution. Three of the schools are for Negroes.

The relationship between the junior colleges and the four-year colleges and universities has always been most cordial. There were not enough junior colleges to organize a separate association, and from the first they have been accorded full membership in the Association of Alabama Colleges and similar organizations. There has been little difficulty concerning the transfer of credits among educational institutions throughout the state, and a healthy mutual regard has always existed.

The largest numbers of students at Alabama junior colleges expect to continue study at four-year institutions; some have secretarial or industrial occupations as goals.

There are few registrants for adult education except at one institution, and this field has been given comparatively little attention. Perhaps the primarily agricultural life of Alabama has caused this.

An examination of the junior colleges in Alabama presents one paradox. Although they are few and small, several of them are among the older institutions of their educational rank in the Southern region. These older institutions have, furthermore, played active and leading parts in the organization and development of both the American Association of Junior Colleges and of the Southern Association of Junior Colleges.

## *Idaho*

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**T**HE JUNIOR college law in Idaho was adopted in January, 1939. It is so designed to permit districts to organize and maintain a junior college as a part of public education above the grade of the four-year high schools. The proposed district may include one or more high schools or one or more counties or parts of counties and the areas need not be contiguous. The minimum requirements for the formation of a junior college district are set by law. There must be an aggregate of 800 students enrolled in the high school



or schools in the year preceding the organization of the college and a property evaluation assessed at not less than \$10,000,000 for the year preceding.

Instructional offerings may be vocational, scientific, literary, or technical and where practicable should be the equivalent of the offerings for the first two years at the University of Idaho. Courses may be modified and adapted to meet the educational needs of the community, or district, or for those students who do not intend to continue their education beyond the two years.

A district interested in establishing a junior college presents to the State Board of Education a petition signed by 300 school electors residing in the district. This petition is approved if the State Board finds the district qualified and upon investigation feels that a junior college would serve the educational needs of the residents. After the State Board's approval, an election is held and the district created, provided a majority of the votes cast are affirmative.

A board of five trustees is elected. They have the responsibility of hiring administrative officers and teachers and are authorized to levy taxes for the support of the college up to fifty cents on each \$100 of assessed valuation. This is in addition to a tuition set by the law of \$50.00 per year for district resident students, \$75.00 per year for residents

of the county, and \$100 for those outside the county.

For buildings and equipment the Board is authorized to issue bonds, but at no time may the aggregate of bonds issued exceed five per cent of the assessed valuation of the district. In addition to tax moneys, tuition, and fees, the college shares in the distribution of the state liquor tax fund to the extent of fifty per cent of the county's share. The college may also cooperate with the state or federal government in financing vocational courses in agriculture, trade, and industry by utilizing funds made available by the Smith-Hughes or George-Barden Acts.

The State Board of Education must approve all courses and establish minimum standards for entrance requirements, graduation, and minimum qualification for instructors.

At present there are two junior colleges organized and operating under this law—North Idaho Junior College at Coeur d'Alene and Boise Junior College at Boise, the state capital. Both colleges are accredited by the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools. Each school has its own campus and buildings and the offerings are being developed along the lines of the community college concept. North Idaho Junior College offers courses paralleling those offered at the University of Idaho in the liberal arts and pre-professional fields. It has also technical and semiprofessional courses

in various trades, business, and secretarial science. The adult education program is growing with increased offerings in the evening school. Two special community services have proved beneficial to the college and the area around Coeur d'Alene. One is an adult education program of family life education and counseling and the other a guidance and testing service offered to the secondary schools of the area.

The junior college at Boise had existed, prior to the permissive legislation, as a private school since 1932. At the time it became a public school, the city gave a tract of land centrally located and comprising 113 acres to the Board of Trustees. An administration building, an assembly hall and music building, and a central heating plant were immediately constructed. Since then (1940) a student union building, three shop buildings, gymnasium, veterans' apartments, and two dormitories have been added to the campus.

The curricular offerings include university parallel in liberal arts and pre-professional courses. Semi-professional, technical, and vocational courses have been added based on community surveys. In the evening, courses include some of the regular academic classes and others based upon special interest of adults. In cooperation with labor and management, related work is conducted for apprentices in the various trades. In such courses, as well as day trade and

night vocational shop courses, the college cooperates with the State Board for Vocational Education. The college also has cooperative programs of a cultural and educational nature with the Boise Art Association, the City-County Health Department, Family Life Council, and many others.

There is no state organization strictly for junior college administrators and instructors. However, the two schools meet twice each year with the other liberal arts colleges of the state for the purpose of coordinating administrative, instructional, and student transfer problems. Both colleges are also members of and active in the Northwest Association of Junior Colleges and the American Association of Junior Colleges.

## *Texas*

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### *Major Provisions of the State Law*

**F**UNCTIONALLY, the junior college in Texas is identified under state law as a terminal-vocational-adult as well as a college preparatory institution. Though the current appropriation statute does not provide state support for strictly short-term courses, it does stipulate that courses of this type must be offered as a primary eligibility requirement for participation in the state appropriation of funds for junior college support. Underlying the legislative concept is the

thought that, since the financial operation of Texas junior colleges is a dual function with the major support derived from local sources, the terminal function should be considered a local one.

There is derived from state support approximately thirty per cent of the financial requirements of junior colleges. Of the remainder, forty per cent is provided from local tax levies, and thirty per cent by student fees which are required by the law as a prerequisite to participation in the state allocation of funds.

High school graduation, or its equivalent as a prerequisite, is a primary test of eligibility of subsidizable courses under the state support program. This is where the line is drawn between those offerings which are within the scope of the college preparatory program and those of the terminal-vocational phase. This means that only those courses which are transferable to degree-granting institutions for degree credit constitute the basis for distribution of state funds. All other phases of the program are operated on a local support basis.

#### *Methods of Organizing a Junior College*

In 1929 the first junior college law was enacted in Texas which gave junior colleges their first legal recognition as institutions of public education. This statute validated the sixteen public junior colleges then in existence and set up re-

quirements for the establishment of additional units thereafter. There are at this time thirty-one public junior colleges in Texas, seventeen of them having been organized under the operation of this statute.

Basically, authority of local areas to establish junior colleges is in the hands of the State Board of Education consisting of twenty-one members elected one each from the congressional districts of the state. This board was set up in 1950 by the Gilmer-Aikin laws which effected a complete revision of the public school program. Operating under this board, the Texas Central Education Agency, headed by a Commissioner of Education appointed by the board, serves as the administrative unit. Applications for the organization of junior college units are made through this administrative agency which conducts a thorough survey of local areas involved and makes the results available to the board when applications are taken under consideration. Currently, the board is reluctant in its attitude toward the establishment of new junior colleges, awaiting apparently the time when it can draw up a system of criteria to govern its actions in these matters.

The law passed in 1929 provided a system of criteria based on a total scholastic enrollment of 7,500, a minimum high school enrollment of 400, a property valuation of \$12,000,000, and a tax limit of twenty cents per \$100 evaluation. Subse-

quently, some minor changes were made by amendments, notably one permitting a maximum tax levy of \$1.00 per \$100. Some slight variations are permitted in these requirements including such overall factors as evidences of growth within the area and recognizable need in terms of existing educational facilities. Transcending all statutory requirements is the one providing for State Board approval with no evident restrictions or injunctive provisions to inhibit their freedom of decision.

*Professional Organizations  
Among Junior Colleges*

Originating in 1925, the Texas Association of Junior Colleges is the major organization in terms of numbers. It has in its membership all of the junior colleges in the state, both public and independent. It holds an annual convention in the spring. The president of this Association for the current year is H. Brownlee of Allen Military Academy, Bryan, Texas.

The Texas Public Junior College Association maintains a full-time central office (in Austin) and for

this reason is the most active of all organizations with the junior college program. President Thomas M. Spencer of Blinn College is president of this Association. There was organized in 1947, under the sponsorship of the Texas Public Junior College Association, the Texas Junior College Teachers Association. It has developed into the largest organization in terms of membership within the state. Joe E. Taylor of Amarillo Junior College is currently its president. It publishes periodically a news organ, "The Messenger," of which Mrs. Wallace of Tyler Junior College is editor.

*Major Trends and Plans  
for Extension of Program*

Generally, the opinion prevails among Texas junior college proponents that the program of state support should be broadened to include the terminal-vocational-adult phase. This opinion comes primarily out of a desire for a concrete recognition of the unique philosophy of the junior college program, rather than the material factor of financial support.

# *Pioneering a Practical Nursing Program\**

L. J. ELIAS

THERE have been few challenges in the developing field of the community college to compare with that offered by the recent emphasis in nursing education. The nation's drastic need for trained nursing personnel, (a nationwide survey in 1951 indicated a deficit of approximately 50,000 nurses by 1954), indifferent success in recruiting qualified nursing students among high school graduates, and inadequate nursing service on the community level are problems which the community college cannot conscientiously ignore.

While it is evident that the whole range of medical and nursing service must be drastically supplemented nationally, it is in the field of the practical nurse training that the community college is best equipped to venture. The minimum nature of the equipment essential to the training program, the shortness and flexibility of the prescribed training period, the ability to relate training and on-the-job responsibilities of the practical nurse, these factors work to the advantage of the community college. In addition, it is best able to tap the reservoir of potential nurse trainees who are denied by the time or expense involved and their family responsibilities from embarking on the longer and more rigorous type of training course leading to the R.N. and professional nursing degree.

The practical nurse program is developing a natural and highly desirable source of nursing trainees among mature women whose families are well established. The average student in Olympic College's practical nurse program is likely to be in her middle forties. The age range of the present student group is nineteen to fifty-two, while the first class graduated a vigorous grandmother of fifty-seven, whose interest and energy induced the Director to set aside the age limit of fifty in order to assist the applicant to prepare for responsibilities in invalid care thrust upon her by circumstances.

In recent years many things have combined to call attention to the training of practical nurses. The professional nurse or R.N. has been forced to assume greater responsibilities due to the increasingly com-

\*Executive Secretary's Note: In the January issue of the *Journal* we gave space for a significant article on the Nursing Technician's education and training in the state of Texas. In this issue, we are allocating our usual space to present another significant article on practical nursing education. We are doing this because the whole matter of the healing arts is now one of paramount national importance. Also in view of the grant of \$110,000 which has been made to the Division of Nursing Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, for a study and for experimentation in junior and community colleges of nursing education, national interest has been deeply aroused. We believed that this presentation of the practical nursing program at Olympic College by Dean Elias will contribute to further understanding of such programs for many colleges and stimulate them to improve those programs or to initiate them in case they have not been started.



plex procedures of modern medical nursing care. The increasing need for bedside nursing service as hospital bed capacity grows and as the armed services draw from the civilian nurse supply and the repute which is now being attached to the trained practical nurse as a member of the "Nursing Team" combine to give added validity to this vocational program. This emphasis must grow as the need for competent bedside nursing care continues to mount with the shortage of professional nurses.

In the last few months, the role of the practical nurse has achieved much sharper definition. The National Association for Practical Nursing Education and several individual states have established criteria for approved programs in practical nurse training. Procedures for licensing and examining practical nurse applicants are now effective in many states. The definition of the role of the practical nurse can perhaps best be borrowed from the *Handbook of the Washington State Board of Practical Nurse Examiners* which reads as follows:

The practical nurse is a person trained to care for selected, sub-acute, convalescent, and chronic patients and who assists the professional nurse in a team relationship, especially in the care of those more acutely ill. She provides nursing service in institutions and in private homes, where she is prepared to give household assistance when necessary. She may be employed by the lay public, hospitals, physicians, or health agencies. The practical nurse works only under the direct orders of a licensed physician or the supervision of registered professional nurses.

A most important issue which must be recognized by all college administrators establishing a program in practical nurse education is the necessity of carefully defining the responsibilities of the licensed practical nurse and of establishing a thorough understanding of her field of responsibility as it relates to the work of the professional nurse.

Training programs for the vocation of practical nurse, with some notable exceptions, have been conspicuous by their absence or their inadequacy. There are few states in which centers for practical nursing training have been established that meet the specifications of the National Association of Practical Nursing Education. Most practical nurses now serving have had little preparation other than experience gained on-the-job with such haphazard instruction and supervision as the professional nurses and doctors have been able to accord them. Several correspondence school courses and commercial short courses in practical nurse training are in operation in many cities. Few, perhaps none, of these latter are organized to provide the necessary quality of training and supervision; many charge excessively for the instruction and are misleadingly vague as to credentials earned or the levels of responsibility for which training is given. Those practical nursing programs that are attached to reputable institutions have some difficulty in adequately supervising the on-the-job

training after the completion of the classroom instruction in nursing techniques.

The college administrator who plans a practical nurse training course is advised to get in touch with the Department of Licenses in his state to ascertain the standards established for the licensing of practical nurses or the accrediting of approved nurse training courses. In states where such legal action has not as yet been taken, it would be wise to consult the offices of the National Association for Practical Nursing Education, 654 Madison Avenue, New York, New York, for recommendations as to standards for an approved program.

The practical nursing program at Olympic College, Bremerton, Washington, found its inception in its community's drastic need for supplementary nursing service. The course established there represents all the approved standards for practical nurse training with several innovations which may have gone far toward eliminating certain of the serious handicaps in the conventional program of practical nurse education. With the possibility in mind that the experiences of Olympic College may provide a logical framework of discussion, the following history of its program is offered.

In the summer of 1950, many responsible officials, alarmed at the possibility of a nursing shortage in the community of Bremerton,

Washington — the site of the Puget Sound Naval Shipyard — met with the Dean of Olympic College and various staff members to discuss the possibility of a program in nursing education. Prompted by the growing tension of civil defense preparations and mindful of its World War II experience in which desperately needed hospital wings in the over-crowded town had shut down for lack of adequate staff nurses, the community decided that some action should be taken. An effort had to be made to recruit and train nursing students locally, nurses who would stay in the community in the event of an emergency and who were not likely to be pulled into surrounding metropolitan areas. A regular professional nursing course was impractical as the two local hospitals lacked the necessary facilities for an accredited training program for professional nurses. Other alternatives had to be considered.

It was evident to all that a practical nurse training program offered the best possible solution. This would enable hospitals and doctors to call upon mature women who could be trained on-the-job in local hospitals while remaining at home in touch with family and other responsibilities. This training program would eventually afford a flexible and responsible reservoir of trained bedside nurses who would be likely to remain in the community.

The first organizational meetings included doctors from the Kitsap

County Medical Association, superintendents of the community's two hospitals, and representatives from the professional nursing association. The Department of Public Health was vitally interested. Representatives from the local Practical Nursing Association, most members of which had received no regular training but had been licensed under the legal waiver, were included. The Dean of Olympic College, Ward F. Storer, Vocational Coordinator, and Dr. Zalia Jencks Gailey of the college chemistry department, a vigorous and patient promoter of nursing education, represented the college.

At the preliminary meetings, a basic issue developed which might well be regarded as paramount in any community initiating a program in practical nursing education. This issue was prompted by the concern of the professional nurse association that the new practical nursing trainees would supplant the professional nurse or R.N. and would eventually usurp many of the functions of the professional nurse. It was a matter of further alarm that this possible invasion of the field of the professional nurse would be dangerous because of the lack of preparation on the part of the practical nurse for the assumption of many of the responsibilities of the R.N. A careful and limiting definition of the responsibilities of the practical nurse and the manner in which her services would supplement the work of the professional nurse was

a major committee accomplishment. The decision to clothe the practical nurse trainee with a distinctive uniform and insignia was also made. This had the purpose of avoiding the accidental or careless confusion of the practical nurse with the R.N. by the physicians, hospital staff, and patients. These preliminary steps to effect an understanding among all interested parties must be regarded as imperative. Lacking the support of the influential professional nursing group and others, the practical nursing program must eventually find hard going in the hospital portion of the program.

Having achieved satisfactory rapport with the professional nurses and after having assured those practical nurses who had received their licenses under the waiver that their places in the hospital would not be taken by the new trainees and that opportunity would be afforded to supplement their own inadequate training, the Olympic College proceeded to the selection of a Director of Practical Nursing Education and the establishment of the program.

It will become evident to any administrator attempting to inaugurate a program in nursing education that the search for, and the selection of, a competent staff will prove a most difficult task. Olympic College was fortunate in being able to borrow from the Public Health Department staff Miss Meryl Norton who had had extensive experience as the Director of

a school of professional nursing education. Since that time the college has also been successful in securing the services of the two other instructors whose training combines the R.N. with the degree in nursing education. The degree in nursing education with the R.N., plus an extensive background in general nursing practice, plus a pleasant personality and above average ability to establish rapport with the middle-aged trainees, the hospital staff, and the patients are regarded as desirable in the selection of a good instructor.

The successful establishment and continuance of a course in practical nursing education depends upon the cooperation of the hospital or hospitals where the on-the-job portion of the training must be secured. The splendid cooperation of the superintendents of the two local hospitals has been a most decisive factor in the success of the program at Olympic. In virtually all training courses it is the usual practice after the initial period of classroom instruction to assign the trainee to a hospital as a minimum wage employee for the remainder of the training program. It was recognized that one of the most serious shortcomings in the average practical nursing course rose from the fact that on-the-job instruction has frequently been neglected as the pressure of the hospital work caused the assignment of trainees to such duties as were most urgent in the hospital's daily routine, rather than to those assignments

needed for her own comprehensive training.

It should be understood that the usual approved practical nursing program involves nine to twelve months' training, the first third of which takes place in the classroom where the techniques of the nursing procedures are studied and practiced; the final two-thirds of the course ordinarily finds the trainee employed in the hospital with the coordinating instructor assisting the hospital to assign the trainees to rotating duties that permit the completion of their instruction while on the job. To meet this objection of an improperly coordinated and unbalanced hospital training, the superintendents of the two Bremerton hospitals agreed with the college to establish the trainees as students of the college throughout the entire year of their training.

To accomplish this, two things were necessary. First, the instruction and supervision of the students while in the hospital portion of their training program had to be under the direction of nurses who were employed by the college and who were only incidentally responsible to the hospital staff and superintendent. Second, the payment of a wage to the hospital trainee during the period of her hospital training had to be either abandoned or carried on by the college in the form of a stipend or student aid. In meeting these problems, Olympic College and the cooperating hospitals inaugurated a practice



which may be unique and which may point the way to a means of guaranteeing more thorough and comprehensive training to practical nurse students.

To meet the first condition required, a hospital instructor-supervisor for each of the two hospitals was evidently necessary. The Vocational Department of the State Office of Public Instruction, which cooperated in establishing the program, was unable to offer sufficient financial assistance to sustain a program with three staff salaries, whereupon the college convened the Advisory Committee, and with the superintendents of the two hospitals who were persuaded of the essential soundness of the plan, the hospital directors agreed to furnish the salary of one of the hospital supervisor-instructors. The money for this salary was paid directly to the college monthly. The college in turn reimbursed the two nursing instructor-supervisors by means of the regular school district pay voucher.

The second problem represented by the wages normally paid to the practical nursing trainees in their months of hospital experience was met in the following fashion. It was agreed, following the accepted practice for determining apprentice pay in industry, that the first four months of hospital experience following the completion of the initial training period would be calculated at approximately sixty per cent of the starting wage of the

licensed practical nurse. The second four months of hospital experience would be estimated at the rate of eighty per cent, and the graduating practical nurse, upon satisfactorily completing the State Board Examination, would qualify for the minimum salary. Because the trainee was to be regarded as a student of the college, rather than an employee of the hospital, an arrangement was negotiated with the hospitals whereby a sum of money equivalent to the stipulated apprentice pay rate times the total student trainee days of hospital service would be paid monthly to the college by the hospitals as a grant-in-aid to support the program. The college, in turn, paid the trainees the agreed monthly sums as student stipends, first deducting such charges for tuition, uniforms, and laboratory fees upon which there had been mutual agreement.

Olympic College has graduated its first group of practical nursing trainees and at four-month intervals is enrolling new classes of from twelve to fourteen students. In the hospital corridors, at the bedside of the patients in the wards, and in private homes, the neat gray uniform and the distinctive shield of the Olympic College Practical Nursing trainee are finding a warm welcome. Hospitals, doctors, staff nurses, and patients have expressed their satisfaction at the thorough preparation of these students and their evident devotion to their work.

Administrators who are inter-



ested in studying the experience of Olympic College in relation to their own proposed program are invited to address inquiries to Dr. L. J. Elias, Dean of Olympic College, Bremerton, Washington. The masterlist of procedures used as a guide in the course can be furnished on request. The *Practical Nursing Handbook* prepared for the students by the instructors, which comprises eighty pages of compactly organized material, is available at cost plus postal charges from the Olympic College Bookstore. The U. S. Office of Education manual entitled *Practical Nursing Curriculum*, is available through the Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C. Its excellently prepared program of instruction, list of necessary equipment, and

extensive bibliography will be invaluable aids.

In conclusion, it must be emphasized that Olympic College's experience in establishing its practical nurse training program points up the conviction that one should not regard any particular type of organization and program as the only acceptable approach. Consonant with the philosophy of the true community college, each educator must work toward the accepted standards and objectives of the program with the materials and personnel at hand; he must work with hospitals, doctors, professional associations, and his Board of Directors to establish the type of program best adapted to the needs and resources of his own community.

## Notes on the Authors

MARION GAITHER KENNEDY

J. R. F. KENT, Chairman of the Department of Mathematics at Harpur College of the State University of New York, has written the article, *What Is Wrong With the Teaching of Mathematics?* Dr. Kent has taught mathematics at Syracuse University and the Universities of Illinois, Arkansas, and British Columbia.

*From the Classroom, Through the Library, Into the Community: A Seminar in Minority Problems* blends the equal efforts of its authors and is an example of effective collaboration between librarian, JOSEPH YENISH, and social science instructor, WILLIAM J. PAGE of Temple University Community College.

*Junior College Education in Thailand* is another of WALTER CROSBY EELL'S interesting articles on the development of junior colleges outside the United States. Dr. Eell's other articles concerned junior college development in Japan and in the Philippines.

The author of *Toward Improved Programs of Student Personnel Services* is J. ANTHONY HUMPHREYS, Director of Personnel Service and Registrar of Woodrow Wilson Branch, Chicago City Junior

College. Dr. Humphreys is Chairman of the AAJC Committee on Student Personnel Services and a member of the Board of Editors of *College and University*.

THOMAS A. HART has made a study of *The Status and Trends of Physical Education Programs in Negro Junior Colleges*. Hart is Assistant Professor of Physical Education at Howard University.

*Dean's Records and Personnel Cards* is the first of two articles to appear in the *Journal* by CORNELIA CARTER. Miss Carter is Dean of Women at Vincennes University Junior College.

*A Milestone a Mile High* is a report on music education in Colorado. RODNEY D. TOWNLEY, the author, is Director of the Music Department at Pueblo College and Secretary of the College Section of Colorado Music Educators.

*Education in the Humane Community* was well reviewed by LEON W. BROWN-LEE, a graduate student at The University of Texas, who expects to receive the Doctor of Philosophy degree in the History and Philosophy of Education in May, 1952.

## Recent Writings

### JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS

HART, JOSEPH K. *Education in the Humane Community*, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951). Pp. 172. \$3.00.

Philosophies of education today must attempt to provide a wholeness of outlook for a world in which life has been all but disintegrated by the application of the products of modern science. Any philosophy of education, no matter what its assumptions, must recognize this problem. Professor Hart considered this along with other social and educational ills in his attempt to provide a wholeness of outlook from the point of view of instrumentalism, experimentalism, or pragmatism.

Charles Morris once said that if pragmatism could be represented by a wheel, Dewey's contributions would occupy the periphery—and Mead's the hub—of the wheel. Although no particular effort will be made to point out these influences, students of the philosophy of education may find almost the whole of this wheel in *Education in the Humane Community*. That is to say, many of the presuppositions of the philosophy of both Mead and Dewey underlie Professor Hart's educational theory. However, this is not all one will find. The author had many original, stimulating, and constructive thoughts, especially in the details of his theory. For example, his emphasis upon, and detailed ex-

planation of, the local community as a real educational center whose function cannot be performed by the school seems an enduring contribution to experimentalism.

Professor Hart's credo, which repeatedly occurs throughout his book, was that "education goes on whether school keeps or not." He claimed there are two main educational agencies, namely, the community and the school. Each has a specific function to perform, and although neither can perform that of the other, the function of one is continuous with the function of the other. The school is located in the community and is a special educational agency of the community. For Professor Hart, education was a continuous social process as broad as life itself.

The author's analysis shows that the impact of modern science and technology has disrupted community life. Both ideas and institutional arrangements have been affected. There has been mass migration of rural folk to the city. The city is not a community. It has bigness, but not wholeness. It has little organization, unity, or coherence, and very little, if any, sense of direction. In the city, the child is bombarded with varied and uncontrollable stimuli, many of which are not conducive to proper intellectual and emotional growth. The city is unable to supply the content for the nurture of the

child. It is truly an enigma—a sort of unfathomable monster.

According to Professor Hart, the "organic community with the living culture it embodies" is a real educational agency. On his view, the "good" community is similar to the Athens of Pericles or the town of early New England. It has a rich background of culture. It has a "core" of values in its customs and habits, beliefs and attitudes, folklore and songs, and occupations and skills. The child participates in community activities and shares in its spirit. Through participation and sharing in the values of the community, he learns social and moral responsibility. He also achieves emotional stability. In the village community, the child has a chance to become acquainted with rocks, trees, streams—all those physical things which man uses for social ends. He thus learns the meaning of appreciating and conserving natural resources. In Professor Hart's language, "socialization" and "naturalization" are achieved through community activity. It is not necessary that early experiences be right, but they must be real. Professor Hart claimed that certain qualities which make one an individual, namely, "his integrity, his center and boundary," are drawn from the community background.

He also thought there should be a recovery of community life. To be sure, he did not mean that village life should be recovered in

its old form. The physical form of the village is not to be imposed upon the city. He meant that the spirit, the meaningfulness, the wholeness, and the sense of direction of life should be recovered. When past values are judged, they become changed values. All our values—all our organized bodies of knowledge which are called science—may be used to create new values. The same method and products of science which caused the disintegration of community life can be directed to the task of restoring the spirit of community life in the city. With this achievement, there would be then, a new community spirit, a new idea of the wholeness of life, a new meaning added to life, and a new sense of direction for life. Herein lie the possibilities for the new community—the conditions for providing again proper nurture for the child.

Probably the most unsatisfactory part of the book is Professor Hart's description of the function of the school. He said that one who has attained the social level of the community is not a human being. The community culture is mediated largely through custom and habit. The growing youth must rise above his primitive culture in order to become a completely human personality. It is the function of the school to make available to youth the "larger world of humanity." Only then is there the possibility of becoming completely human. According to Professor Hart, human-

ity includes the values of the past, those of the present, and the hope of the future. The school should offer facilities for realizing and understanding this "larger world of humanity." It should provide the student with "means of effective communication with others," and means for "more effective self-expression, self-realization, and self-mastery."

Viewed from another perspective, the school should teach youth how to think. Professor Hart was an instrumentalist in holding that thinking begins with a problem or conflict. Thought is mediational; it is instrumental to the direction of action and of conduct. Hence the subject matter of the schools should be organized as problems. The child uses that part of the past which he needs in order to solve his problems. Children should learn by and through experience. There should be a return to experience. When the child can use a symbol to represent consequences of an intended act, he has begun to think. Although Professor Hart's discussion of the curriculum is general, he said that the three R's are a minimum for every child, and that each child should study the values of the past in accordance with his ability and interests. Between the ages of ten and eighteen, youth should be initiated into those experiences through which they may realize and understand the "larger world of humanity."

For Professor Hart, "the rise of

the modern scientific movement and the emergence of the modern individual" are "two sides of a single development in the evolution of man and nature." The method of science—the experimental method—is also the method of individual growth and development. This method best flourishes in the political atmosphere of democracy. Science is also identified with intelligence: with the ability to use organized bodies of knowledge as means to desirable ends. Science is a means and not an end. It merely conditions rather than determines our ends.

In Professor Hart's theory, "mind" and "self" are emergents in the process of social evolution. A society, or at least a set of social relations and interactions, is presupposed as a condition for the possibility of their emergence. Mind is a function of social behavior. As one's behavior is directed more intelligently, mind grows. The self is the sum of one's social experiences. It is an "organic growth." It is ever in the process of development.

The individual within the culture, with the tools of science, can change his culture. He can do creative thinking. In developing new ways and modes of thinking there results "new mind," and new values. The values of individual thinking accrue to society.

Professor Hart believed in a "logic of social evolution." This evolution is not a cosmic evolution,



that is to say something pushed from behind or drawn from the fore. It is an emergent social evolution. One cannot predict what the future will be, but through the use of intelligence, one can help to bring about a more desirable future. At the present particular level of social evolution, there are individualists rather than socially responsible individuals. Through the use of the experimental method, through growth in "self-expression, self-mastery and self-realization," there is the possibility of developing "social intelligence" and a "new humanity." The products of science may then be turned toward desirable ends. There is, then, a possibility of having a community in the city.

Humanity, like democracy, is always on the move. Democracy is a great experiment. Values are relative. Values become a cross section of "humanity-on-the-move," and they must ever be re-examined. Education, as a social process, continuously creates new values. One always works toward the "Great Society," but never quite reaches it.

Professor Hart was an experimental naturalist whose educational theory might be criticised on the basis of its assumptions. That is to say, for example, one might challenge the naturalistic origin of mind and self. However, space will permit only criticisms within the theory.

Because of the undue emphasis placed upon the community in Pro-

fessor Hart's theory, one might suspect that "Mr. and Mrs. Community" were the father and mother of the children to be educated. Although the family, as well as its individual members, is recognized in his discussion of the community as the basic social unity, it does not receive adequate attention as an educational agency. Clearly, the family, more so than the community, shapes the child's beliefs and attitudes and provides him with a sense of values, especially in the early and formative years.

It is rather a dubious argument which holds that either an individual or a community possesses the characteristics, for example, of boundary and center. Even if a community possessed the quality of integrity—a quality which the individual does possess—it is a more dubious argument which declares that such a quality could be imparted to an individual through an educational medium. Indeed, upon such a basis, everyone in a particular community should have the same integrity, boundary, and center. Those things which make up the qualities of an individual cannot be transferred from an abstract community to a concrete individual. These qualities come from one's interaction with people, things, and ideas.

There seems to be some doubt whether to return to the face-to-face relationships that one experiences in the village community for a recovery of a sense of values.

The most significant factor in the disintegration of community life seems to have been the disintegration of family life. It is quite possible that the child might be nurtured in the family or neighbor circle through the proper use of radios, television, and movies. One might grow very well both emotionally and intellectually in such an atmosphere. This would be, of course, in part a return to community life, but it would be at the family level. It seems that the family is more essential in holding the community together than is the community in holding families together. Destroy the family, and there is no community, or society.

Many books are plagued with the too frequent use of italicized words. This happens to be one. This objection may be only a personal

bias, but the use of italics can be overdone. There is also the use of much freakish terminology: for example, "naturalization," and "humanity-on-the-move," and other similar terms.

All of Professor Hart's ideas on the nature of learning have been expressed elsewhere in educational philosophy. He decidedly emphasized the community—the social role of education—rather than the nature of learning. The social feature is always dominant: the individual is always within a culture. This idea may be of interest to those working in school-public-relations. His point of view rather discourages the once rashly held claim that the school has the magic power for creating a new social order.

—LEON BROWNLEE

## Selected Reference

H. F. BRIGHT

Hook, Sidney. "Perennial and Temporal Goals in Education," *The Journal of Higher Education*, XXIII (January, 1952), 1-12.

In the development of formal education it has been often true that the stated objectives have been entirely unrelated to actual practices. Verbal agreement among institutions that, for example, democratic education is desirable has not always resulted in comparable classroom and administrative procedures. Dr. Hook proposes in this paper a set of objectives which, in his view, are generally valid in that they constitute a necessary but not sufficient condition for agreement on curriculum and teaching methods.

He argues that, contrary to fashionable belief, it is not necessary to agree upon the nature of ultimate reality in order to arrive at educational goals; that, in fact, with the exception of some theological matters, no distinctive propositions relating to education can be logically derived from metaphysical or epistemological statements. He argues further that the process of education should not be confused with certain goals favored by individual educators. He, therefore, defines education as

the process by which the cumulative culture of one generation—its knowledge, techniques, traditions, and values—is selectively transmitted to another generation.

Objectives of formal education may be divided into three groups not mutually exclusive: techniques, fields of study, and habits and attitudes. There is general agreement that skills and techniques must be acquired and the pressures of the environment are increasingly stressing "vocational" education. Subject-matter fields must include an adequate knowledge of physical and biological determinants in the environment, an intelligent knowledge of the functioning of society,

and an appreciation of—ultimately also a personal commitment to—moral ideals, their bases, alternatives, and consequences. Attitudes must include the habit of reasonable expectation, the martial virtues of toughness, resiliency, and the awareness of evil potentialities in all races and persons. Loyalty to democracy, as distinguished from conformity, is of first importance. Loyalty to democracy combines the most liberal attitude toward heresy with a refusal to tolerate conspiracy in citizens who can distinguish between the two.

The above-mentioned goals may be called perennial goals of education. Of importance also are temporal goals for the next several decades. Among these are the following:

An analytic study of oriental cultures should be included. Other cultures must be studied for appreciation not only of their good points but also of their bad. We can deal intelligently only with those persons whose attitudes we understand; and in the present situation we must deal with the natives of Asia.

A study of the ideology, strategy, and organization of the international Communist movement is of first importance. If Communism succeeds in its objectives, liberal education will disappear. Yet few educators of this country have really studied the bases of the Communist movement and few can talk intelligently about its strengths, its weakness, and its threats to democracy and liberal education.

The author does not press for his own prescription of educational method. He does point out that certain skills of language and inference and certain habits of logic are essential in the development of the educated person. Fortunately, since independence of thought is basic to democratic processes, the necessary skills and habits can be developed without forsaking individual initiative.

Finally, the necessity of goals must

not be lost in the difficulty of defining them. Like the moral values of honesty and integrity, the goals are no less

important and no less real in their influence on action because they are difficult of definition.

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